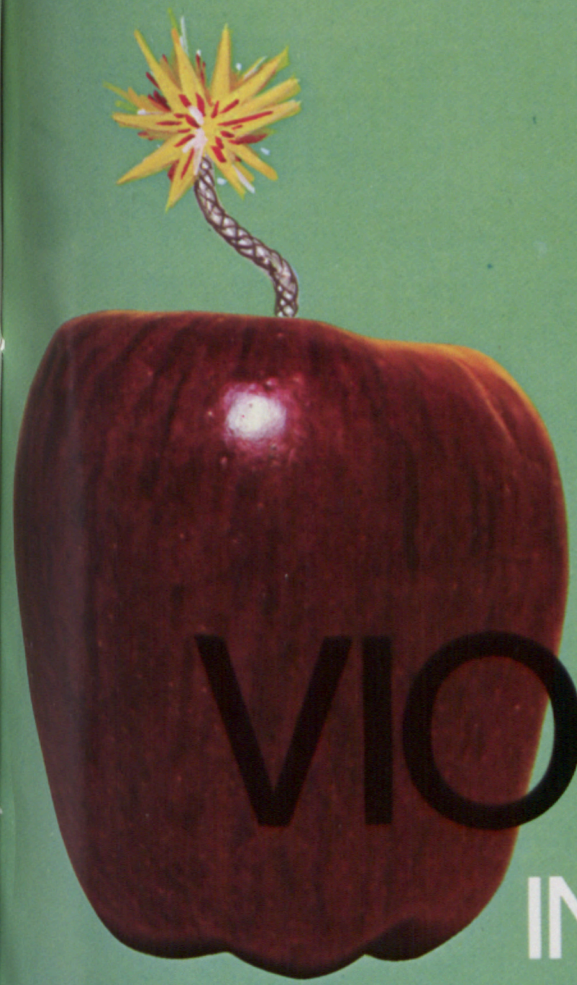
TODAY'S EDUCATION
The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
April-May 1980

ELEMENTARY EDITION



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We're looking for people to write children's books

Writing for children is the perfect way to take up writing, says the author of 53 children's books. Your ideas come right out of your own experience. And while it's still a challenge, it's probably the straightest possible line between you and publication – if you're qualified to seek the success this rewarding field offers.

By Alvin Tresselt, Dean of Faculty

If you want to write and get published, I can't think of a better way to do it than writing books and stories for children and teenagers. Ideas flow naturally right out of your own life. While it's still a challenge, the odds of getting that first unforgettable check from a juvenile publisher are better than they are from just about any other kind of publisher I know.

Later on, you may get other checks from other publishers. But right now, the object is to begin — to break into print — to learn the feeling of writing and selling your work and seeing your name in type. After that, you can decide if you want your writing to take another direction.

But after 30 years of editing, publishing, and teaching (and 53 books) I can tell you this: you'll go a long way before you find anything as rewarding as writing for young readers.

Your words will never sound as sweet as they do from the lips of a child reading your books and stories. And the joy of creating books and stories that young people 'really dig' is an experience you'll never have anywhere else. (In this age of boob tube illiteracy, convenient morality, and plastic values, do you know *of a more important audience?)*

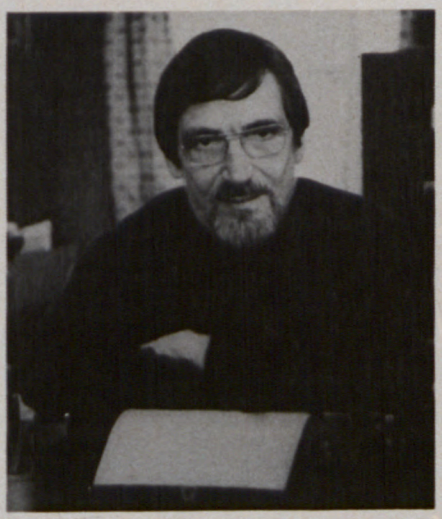
But, that's not all. The financial rewards go far beyond most people's expectations because there's a surprisingly big market out there for writers who are trained to crack it. More than 130 million young people's books are purchased each year. Between 2,000 and 2,500 new titles appear annually and new authors account for as many as half of them.

There are also 250 monthly magazines looking for material for young readers. You can imagine how much writing it takes just to keep them going!

'Am I really qualified?'

Yet two big questions bedevil nearly every would-be writer: "Am I really qualified?" and "How can I get started?"

This is our definition of a "qualified person": It's someone with an aptitude for writing who can take constructive criticism, learn from it, and turn it into a professional performance. That's the only kind of person we're looking for. The reasons are simple: our reputation is built on success, and if prospective students don't have the earmarks of success, we probably can't help them. And we tell them so. It's only fair to both of us.



Alvin Tresselt was Vice President and Executive Editor of Parents' Magazine Press, the first editor of *Humpty Dumpty's Magazine for Children*, and has served on the board of the Author's Guild. His 53 books for young readers have sold over two million copies.

To help us spot potential authors, we've developed a revealing test for writing aptitude. It's free, and we don't charge for our evaluation. But no one gets into the Institute without passing it. Those who pass and enroll receive our promise: You will complete at least one manuscript ready to submit to a publisher by the time you finish the Course.

When we teach, you learn

I've learned a lot about writing for children and I love it. Now I'm passing my knowledge on to my students so they can profit from it. When I'm not writing my own children's books I spend my time at The Institute of Children's Literature, a workshop for writers that does only one thing and does it better than any other school or college or university of its kind: It trains qualified people to write for the young reader.

This is the way I work with my students, and my fellow instructors — all of whom are experienced writers or editors — work more or less the same way.

When you're ready — at your own time and your own pace — you send your assignment to me and I read it and reread it to get everything out of it you've put into it. Then I edit your assignment with a red pencil just the way a publishing house editor would — if he had the time. I return it along with a detailed letter explaining my comments. I tell you what your strong points are, what your weaknesses are, and just what you can do to improve. It's a matter of push and pull. You push and I pull and between us both, you learn to write.

The proof of the pudding

This method really works. I wouldn't spend five minutes at it if it didn't. The proof of the pudding is that many of our students break into print even before they finish the Course.

Kathleen Huber, N.Y., N.Y., writes: "Regarding my sale to *Highlights for Children* for $125, it started out as an assignment for the Institute, and *Highlights* was only the second magazine I had sent it to. Certainly your Course made this sale possible. It may be the best investment I ever made."

A.M. Hummel, Danville, Pa., writes "When *Highlights for Children* accepted my short story — Assignment #8 in the Course, and sent me a $65 check, I could hardly believe it! Then, within a week, I got another check and a go-ahead assignment for a second piece."

'I won first prize of $400 for a Course assignment!'

"Before taking your Course (which I checked out with the National Better Business Bureau), the short stories I scribbled for my two tiny tots never caught an editor's fancy," writes Emily Burns of Salem, Oregon.

"My first sale, to *National Catholic Weekly*, was a Course assignment. Then I submitted another Course assignment in a writer's competition and won first prize of $400!"

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To find qualified men and women with an aptitude for writing, the Faculty and Consultants of the Institute have prepared a four-page Writing Aptitude Test. It is offered free and will be professionally evaluated at no cost to you by our staff.

Just mail the coupon below to receive your free Test and 24-page illustrated brochure which describes the Institute, our Course, Faculty, and the current market for children's literature. If you demonstrate a true aptitude for writing, you will be eligible to enroll. But that's entirely up to you.

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Redding Ridge, Connecticut 06876

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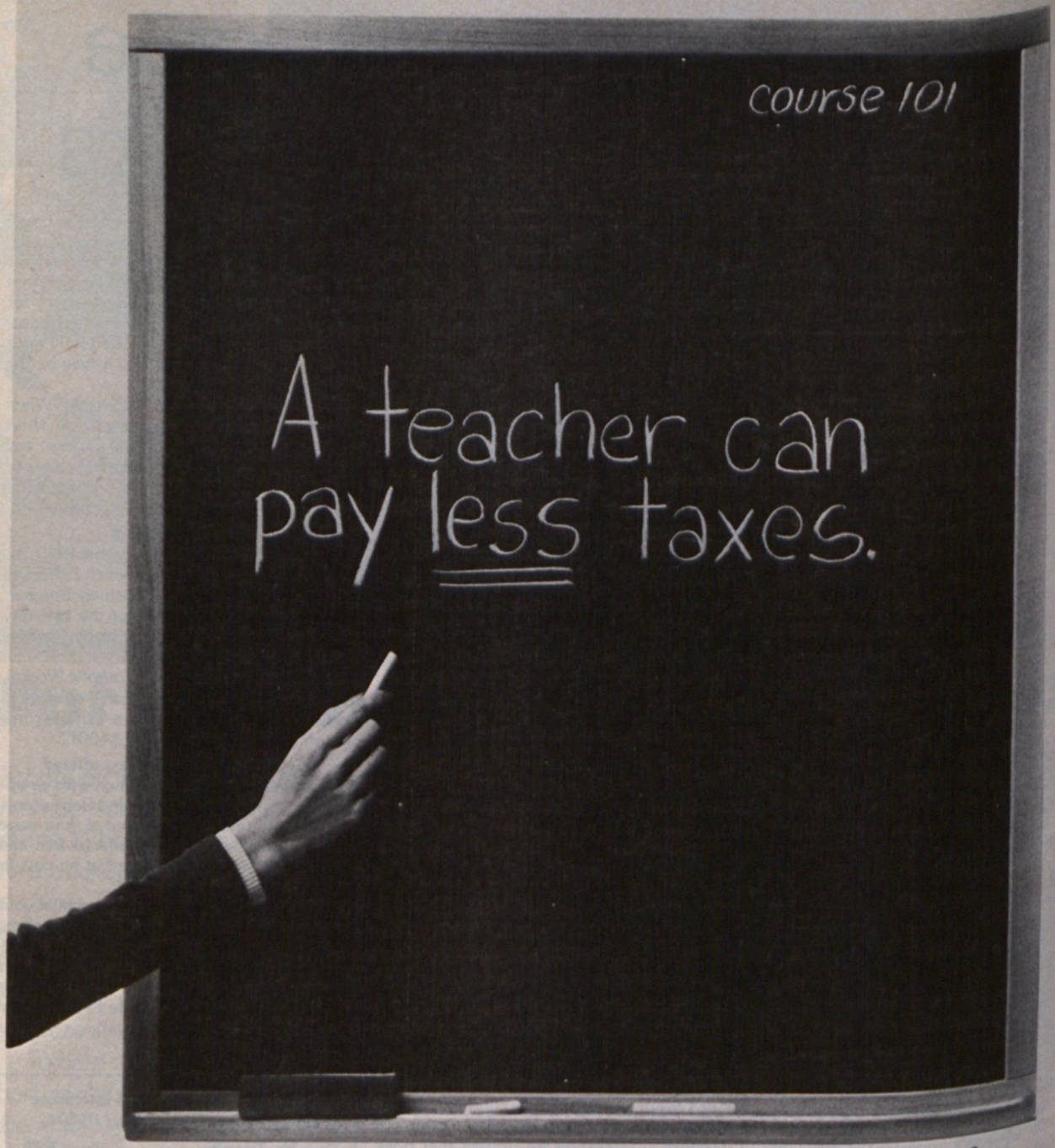

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TODAY'S EDUCATION

The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
April-May 1980, Volume 69, Number 2

ELEMENTARY EDITION

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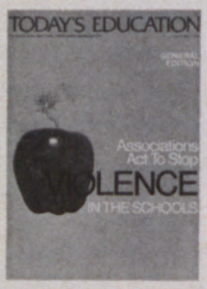
In This Issue

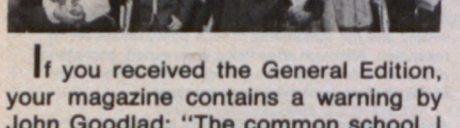


Violence in today's schools! What is its nature? How extensive is it? What is being *done* about it?

This is the subject of this issue's cover and the lead feature in all three editions—general, elementary, and social studies.

NEA President Willard McGuire starts the feature by telling of NEA's concerns and actions regarding this national problem. His article is followed by a discussion of current research on the problem, and the feature concludes with reports about what various education associations are doing to alleviate the situation in their schools.

You'll also find in all three editions another in our series of articles on testing. This one is by Allan Nairn and associates and is a summary of their recent report on the Educational Testing Service for Ralph Nader. After a review of ETS and its tests, including the *Scholastic Aptitude Tests*, the authors conclude, "Though there is persuasive evidence that ETS tests fail to predict academic and occupational performance, they are a shaping, often capricious force in people's lives."

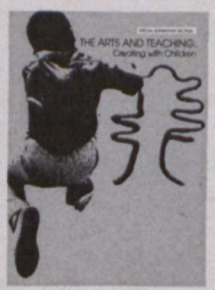


If you received the General Edition, your magazine contains a warning by John Goodlad: "The common school, I fear, fares badly today. Threatened externally by voucher plans and special interests, it has crumbled internally . . . because of our failing to take seriously Bruner's inspiring thesis that '. . . any subject can be taught in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development.' "

Goodlad calls for restoring some commonness to the common school in the 1980's, and he says teachers and other educators must lead the way. "I believe that we have little other than ourselves and our own capabilities to fear."

Another article in the General Edition is one by Ethel Heins entitled "From Reading to Literacy." Her thesis is that "we can surely try, through literature, to irrigate the deserts of young minds and to reclaim the wastelands of boredom in which so many children are hopelessly lost."

The multi-page feature in the General Edition deals with Vocational Education and the Handicapped. It tells of handicapped youngsters finding places for themselves in society through vocational education. A New Jersey author answers questions teachers have about integrating the handicapped in vocational classes, and three federal laws that are changing the national outlook for the handicapped are reviewed.



If you received the Elementary Edition, your magazine contains a multi-page feature on the Arts and Teaching, designed by our elementary consultant, Monroe Cohen, former editor of *Childhood Education*. Articles in the feature present various approaches to the idea that good elementary teachers "do not confine art periods to Friday afternoons or base writing on phony exercises or treat reading as a series of dull drills. They create, alongside children, a classroom world of aesthetic quality and aesthetic expression."

In one article in this feature, the author calls for classrooms that are studio-workshops amply stocked with materials that invite cross-connections in learning. In another, the author describes an in-service creative arts workshop, which helps teachers recover a childlike freshness of perception and expression.

In another, the author takes us into classrooms where teachers and children explore words and ideas together, deepening their sensibilities and finding their own expressive forms.

In yet another article, the author describes ways to make writing from personal experience a central element in the life of every school. He suggests what a writing-oriented school would be like.

If you received the Social Studies Edition, your magazine includes articles planned by our social studies consultant, Merrill Hartshorn, executive secretary emeritus of the National Council for the Social Studies. The theme of this material is Teaching Global Perspectives and World History in the 80's.

In the first part of the social studies material, the author says, "We need the same kind of intellectual orientation toward teaching about the world that we have toward teaching about the United States. We do not teach about the United States as a motley collection of separate states. Rather, we help students to see the United States as a single, complex society in which they are participants. We need to develop the same approach to teaching about the world—one that helps students see the world as a single, complex society of which they are inescapably a part."

In another part of this feature, another author, in discussing the teaching of world history, says, "The rehabilitation of the world history course may be just around the corner. A growing percentage of Americans are realizing, albeit reluctantly, that our future is closely tied to events in other parts of the world. As a result, some politicians, business leaders, and educators are calling for courses that increase students' familiarity with other cultures and peoples."

The author believes the exact content of a world history course must be left to teachers, who should keep his proposed guidelines in mind as they develop and organize these courses.

As you read this issue, a readership study is being conducted by Hagerstown Communications to help us plan our future issues. Maybe you are one of the scientifically selected sample and have received a questionnaire. If so, thanks for filling it out and returning it promptly. If you have not been involved in the study, please send us your reactions anyway. We want to know what you think about the specialized editions in particular and the magazine in general.

—WAG.

Trends

Californians Reject Parochiaid and Voucher Plans

Three initiatives to amend the California state constitution to allow state funding of nonpublic schools have failed to get enough signatures to get on the ballot. None came close to gathering the more than 500,000 voters' signatures needed.

One plan would have set up a complicated voucher plan to provide up to $650 million a year to nonpublic schools. A second, sponsored by the National Taxpayers Union, would have set up a tuition tax credit plan; the third plan would have abolished all public education in the state.

Parochiaid and voucher plans lost in all of the 11 referendum votes on the subject in various states between 1967 and 1978.

IQ Test Ruled Illegal for Retardation Screening

IQ tests must not be used to place students in classes for the mentally retarded, a federal district court in California has ruled. The judge made permanent a 1974 injunction against such use of the tests and ordered the state to reevaluate all Black pupils who had been placed in classes for the mentally retarded as a result of the tests.

The case, *Larry P.* v. *Wilson Riles and the State Board of Education,* concerned six Black children who had been placed in classes for the mentally retarded because of IQ test results and then rediagnosed as normal.

NEA President Attacks South African *Apartheid*

NEA President Willard McGuire has called attention to the violations of human rights in South Africa and to what he termed "an ominous trend" in the judicial practices of that country.

Citing the 1979 world report of Amnesty International, McGuire pointed out that the execution of Solomon Mahlangu, a 22-year-old Black man, was the first hanging of a political prisoner since the 1960's.

Amnesty International's 1979 report condemns South Africa for the continuation of waves of detentions, bannings, preventive detentions, indiscriminate arrests, detentions without trial, political trials, holding of prisoners incommunicado for longer than a year, and torture. Most of those affected are Black.

In 1978, according to Amnesty, South Africa hanged 132 persons, all but one of them Black.

College Enrollment May Shrink, Change in Composition

Undergraduate enrollment in U.S. colleges and universities may fall 5 to 15 percent during the next two decades, according to the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education.

By the year 2000, says the Council, student bodies will include "more women than men, as many people over 21 as 21 and under, nearly as many part-time as full-time attendees, and one-quarter of all students will be members of minorities."

The Council is publishing its predictions in *Three Thousand Futures: The Next 20 Years in Higher Education.*

Poor Children in South Lack Social Services

Of 4 million Southern children living at or below poverty level in 1975, fewer than 2 million received cash benefits from Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), and only 2.2 million received Medicaid benefits, according to the federal Administration for Children, Youth, and Families (ACYF). In 1977, the average monthly AFDC benefit was $58 per child in the South, $127 outside the South.

Two out of every 5 poor children in this country live in the South. The overall poverty rate among Southern children is 21 percent, says ACYF, while outside the South, it is 13 percent.

White Collar Employment Is Likely To Rise

More than half of the estimated 66.4 million job openings available between 1978 and 1990 will be in white-collar occupations—professional, technical, managerial, sales, and clerical, says the U.S. Department of Labor. Nearly 20 million of those vacancies will be in new jobs, according to the Department's *1980-81 Occupational Outlook Handbook.*

About 55 percent of the jobs will be white collar, 24 percent will be blue collar, 18 percent will be in service occupations, and 2 percent will be in farming.

More scientists, engineers, and technicians will be needed for energy production, mass transportation, and environmental protection; more health workers will be needed; and the rise in family incomes will provide more jobs for cooks, cosmetologists, and other personal service workers.

Nevertheless, 1 in 4 future college graduates will be unable to find work that requires a degree.

Few Go Straight Through College

Only 4 out of 10 entering college freshmen are likely to receive a bachelor's degree from the same institution within four years, according to the American Council on Education (ACE). Three out of 10 probably will never graduate, although others will transfer or return to complete their studies.

Major reasons for dropping out are financial problems, health problems, family responsibilities, and changes in educational goals, says ACE.

Runaway Programs: Who Uses Them?

Most of the teenagers who used federally funded runaway programs in fiscal 1978 were between 14 and 17 years old, and 15- and 16-year-olds used the programs most of all, according to the federal Administration for Children, Youth, and Families (ACYF).

Although a 1976 survey found that only 47 percent of runaways were girls, said ACYF, girls constituted 60 percent of those using the programs. Among the teenagers served, 45 percent had run away, 15 percent had left home by agreement, and 12 percent had been pushed out. Others were living at home and had other problems.

Major reasons given for seeking help were poor communication with a parent, parental strictness, truancy, emotional neglect, and personal emotional problems.

ACYF operates a toll-free hot-line, the National Runaway Switchboard. For information, write Phil Orticke, Youth Development Bureau, ACYF, P.O. Box 1182, Washington, DC 20013.

Researchers Seek Minority Apprentices

The federal Apprenticeship Program for Minority High School Students is to provide at least 1,000 summer jobs this year. Students will work in universities, federal labs, and research centers with scientists and engineers who have volunteered to be sponsors.

Interested high school students or their teachers can get information on the program from the Office of Science and Technology Policy, Old Executive Office Building, 17th and Pennsylvania Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20500.

April 22 Is Earth Day

April 22 is the tenth anniversary of the first Earth Day. In 10 years, the environment movement has grown tremendously and produced major improve-

Trends

(continued)

ments in the quality of life in this country, but much more must be done. Disposal of toxic substances is only one of the problems facing environmentalists now.

For a list of ideas on the celebration of Earth Day in elementary and secondary schools, write Earth Day '80, 1638 R St., N.W., Suite #1, Washington, DC 20009, or call (202) 293-2550.

Schools Cut Energy Use

Energy use in schools dropped 35 percent in the last five years, according to the American Association of School Administrators. Reduced consumption saved taxpayers more than $1 billion last year, "enough to pay 80,000 teachers," said AASA.

Most of the reduction came from changes in operation and maintenance, such as altering buildings and reducing heating and cooling.

Districts with enrollments of more than 5,000 used almost 12 percent less fuel per student than smaller districts, said AASA, probably because they had professional help in cutting their fuel use.

Center for Bilingual Research Opens in California

The National Institute of Education has set up a national Center for Bilingual Research at the Southwest Regional Laboratory for Educational Research and Development in California. It is the first major federally funded institution devoted to research on teaching and learning in bilingual settings.

The Center will provide an opportunity for researchers, practitioners, and members of bilingual communities to take part in research that can benefit bilingual education. Research will be in language acquisition, language use, and bilingual schooling. The Center hopes the research will provide a means of improving bilingual classroom procedures and materials.

For more information, write Reynaldo Macías at the National Institute of Education, Room 818, 1200 19th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20208.

Treaty To Ease Student Mobility

More than 30 nations have signed a treaty that will ease the movement of students and scholars across national boundaries. The treaty governs mutual recognition of diplomas as valid academic credentials in the nations taking part. It also grants the holders of the diplomas the same rights as people in the host country who hold comparable diplomas.

The treaty will not bind the United States unless the Senate ratifies it. When ratified, it will not bind U.S. institutions to accept any student from another signatory country.

The treaty was signed at a meeting of representatives from UNESCO's European region, which includes Israel, Canada, and the United States, as well as the European nations.

Voting Drive Seeks Students

A voter registration campaign is seeking to increase voter participation among the 3 million young people who will graduate from high school in June. The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), sponsor of the drive, hopes to do this by providing greater access to voter registration and a voter education curriculum.

In 20 states, school principals can be designated as voting registrars; elsewhere, NASSP is encouraging local election officials to visit high schools and set up registration programs there.

NASSP's six-week voter curriculum outlines the history of the vote in the United States.

For more information, write the Office of Student Activities, NASSP, 1904 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091.

Increases in Public Institutions' Tuition Run Behind Inflation Rate

Average charges for tuition, fees, and room and board at state colleges and universities this year increased at a slower rate than did the Consumer Price Index, according to the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU). AASCU thinks this may be why enrollment at member institutions rose 2 percent instead of declining.

Average total charges for undergraduates who were state residents rose 9.2 percent between 1978-79 and 1979-80, while the Consumer Price Index rose 12.4 percent between September 1978 and September 1979. Average tuition for these undergraduates rose 6.6 percent, while their room and board charges rose 10.4 percent.

Women's Employment, Education Increase

Women's status changed in several important ways in the last decade, reports the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor. For the first time, more women worked outside than in side their homes—51.9 percent in O tober 1979, up from 43.4 percent 1970. During the decade, 2 million m nority women, 16 percent of all the n women workers, entered the lab force.

Between 1970 and 1979, women share of managerial and administrati jobs rose from 16 percent to 25 pe cent. Among professional and technic workers, the proportion of women ros from 39 to 43 percent; among skille craft workers, from 3 to 6 percent.

Women's educational attainme came to equal that of their male cou terparts—12.6 years of school for bo men and women workers.

College Athletic Aid Must Match Sex Ratio

Colleges and universities must ma financial aid available to men and wo en athletes in proportion to their parti pation in athletics programs, accordi to Patricia Roberts Harris, who mad the announcement last winter as Secre tary of Health, Education, and Welfare "If 70 percent of a school's athletes a male, they are entitled to 70 percent the financial aid dollars their scho makes available," Harris explained.

In determining compliance with Ti IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, the government will be looking at such elements of the athletic program as provision of equipment, scheduling of games and practices, allocation of travel expenses, opportunities for coaching, medical and dental service and publicity. Teams do not have to be integrated by sex, and the same sports do not have to be offered to men and women.

(For more information on this subject see "The Teacher and the Law," which appears in this issue.)

College Freshmen Give Priority to Income

The 1979-80 college freshmen are more interested in making money and being financially well-off than any other entering class in recent years, according to the fourteenth annual survey of entering freshmen conducted by the University of California at Los Angeles and the American Council on Education.

"Being very well-off financially" is a very important goal in life, reported 62.5 percent of freshmen this year as compared to only 43.5 percent of freshmen in 1967. A very important reason for deciding to go to college was "to be able to make more money," said 63.1 percent in 1979, 49.9 percent in 1971.

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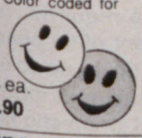

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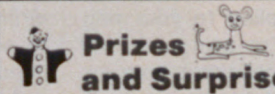

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The Teacher as a Consumer

Bargain Air Fares

By THEODORE O. CRON
Professor of Consumer Journalism, George Washington University, Washington, DC; Former Consumer Education Coordinator for the Federal Trade Commission.

Low-cost air travel is here, thanks to airline "deregulation." Or perhaps it may be more accurate to say "lower cost air travel than would otherwise have been the case"—considering the periodic fare increases made necessary by rises in fuel prices. At any rate, old-fashioned marketplace competition has pretty much replaced government rules on fares. But it won't provide a bargain automatically to the traveler who overlooks the subtleties of shopping for low-cost air fares.

If you're thinking about a bargain vacation during the summer holidays, start planning now, for the key to competitive air fares is *time.* You can have your pick of low fares if you plan far enough in advance—up to 60 days at least.

First, whether you consult a travel agent or the airlines themselves (on their "800" WATS-line numbers if they do not have ticket offices in your locality), get as much information as you can. Check with at least three and in some big cities, as many as seven different airlines. Don't overlook the smaller regional airlines; some of them have the most competitive fares available. This first round should give you a sense of the "market" between or among the destination points of your trip.

Dollars alone, however, should not be the sole criterion for choosing a flight. A few airlines, for example, try to divert passenger traffic to less crowded, often out-of-the-way terminals where their airport costs are lower. Make sure you know and can take advantage of the airport location (and flight time) before you pay for a discounted fare. Otherwise, the taxi fare to the airfield may wipe out what would otherwise be savings in air fare.

Often travelers have last-minute complications that involve changes in their travel plans. Remember that most airlines will not transfer special low-cost fares from your original flight to another one and that in some cases, there may be cancellation penalties on discount fares. Ask an agent what the airline's policy is regarding such a change in your travel plans.

An airline ticket is a contract: The line will provide a specified travel service for the sum you paid. If you get what you believe is a bargain fare, pay for it as soon as you can. If there is a rise in that particular fare before the date of your flight—and there may be, considering the continuous increases in fuel prices—you will generally not be asked to pay the difference: Your contract has been reserved and paid for.

But what is the best method of payment? Cash and credit card payments are the simplest to undo if you have to cancel. In either case, you must return the unused ticket to the airline's ticket agent. If you paid cash, the agent can usually give you an immediate cash refund. If you paid by credit card, the agent will have an offsetting credit equivalent to the price of your ticket applied to your account. Remember, if you string out repayment on a credit card after you've been billed, you may be paying 18 percent interest per year on the unpaid balance—and negating the bargain you received on your air fare.

If you paid by personal check, your refund request may have to be processed through the airline's headquarters, a process that may take several weeks. In this case, your refund would probably be mailed to you.

If you are not canceling but just switching flights, make sure the value of your old ticket is applied to your new purchase and, if you're using a credit card, that the agent only writes up a slip for the difference in cost (either a credit or an additional charge). If you don't insist on this, you may end up with *two* sets of tickets charged to you.

In the scramble to fill seats on all flights, most airlines overbook. It's almost a mathematical certainty that some people will cancel out on each flight. Airline personnel at the check-in counter usually know when a flight has been oversold. If, just prior to takeoff, they see that the "shows" are outnumbering the seats, they will offer passengers the chance to be bumped voluntarily for compensation. The amount of compensation is negotiable.

Before you volunteer for "bumping pay," make sure the next flight with a *confirmed* reservation is acceptable to you. If you have a bargain fare, make sure you won't lose it by staying behind. Don't settle for standby or waiting-list status; you may never leave the airport. And if the next flight is the next day, find if the airline will pay for meals, a phone call or telegram, and overnight accommodations. If it won't, your "bumping pay" may be quickly eaten up by these essentials.

If you are involuntarily bumped, the airline is required to give you a written statement of its policy and the full price of your ticket up to a maximum of $200. If you must wait more than two hours for the next domestic flight out (four hours for international flights), you will receive instead *twice* the price of your ticket. You *keep* your original ticket to use for your eventual flight or for a refund if you never get off the ground.

Involuntary bumping can cost you more than twice the price of your ticket. missed prepaid sports events or tours, canceled prepaid hotel reservations, missed lectures or classes related to your continuing education. Some of these may qualify as "consequential damages" you'll want to collect from the airline; others may not be claimable. If you intend to pursue an involuntary bumping complaint because you believe the costs to you far outweigh the ticket compensation offered, don't cash the check the airline gives you. If you do cash it, you will probably forfeit your chance to negotiate a larger payment or to sue for consequential damages later.

That's right—sue. Most complaints against airlines involve tickets, baggage, service, or flight delays and can be negotiated to a settlement with the line's consumer complaint department. But if you can't get satisfaction, you can usually sue in small claims court. Any airline that authorizes at least one agent to sell its tickets in your state can be sued in your state's small claims court.

Another friend of the airline passenger is the Civil Aeronautics Board (CAB)—at least until 1985, when it may go out of business. For help or more information, contact the nearest CAB field office (Anchorage, Alaska; Seattle, Washington; Los Angeles; Fort Worth, Texas; Miami, Florida; New York; and Des Plaines, Illinois) or write the Bureau of Consumer Protection, CAB, Washington, DC 20428. □

NEA Special Services has developed *Complete Travel Guide for Educators.* The 48-page booklet is available free to members while supplies last. To obtain a copy, write Travel Guide, NEA Special Services, Room 404E, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

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Letters

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from a recent copy of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Teaching and Feelings

Eda J. LeShan's warm story, "Teaching (and Learning) Are Easier if You Know How You Feel" (February-March) made me stop, think, and reassess my primary job as a teacher.

Many of us encourage our students to confide in us. Yet, when they do, sometimes a feeling of "oh, no, not another student with a problem" overwhelms us—especially when we already face many classroom pressures.

Reading this article has made me all the more aware that, despite these pressures, my high school students—who are just children after all—need to feel loved, understood, and cared for.

Thank you for printing this inspiring article. It gave me a much-needed lift.

—Mary A. Gillespie, *social studies teacher, Edgewood Senior High School, Atco, New Jersey.*

Comments on Chris Rogers

I found the interview with Chris Rogers, a teacher who teaches from a wheelchair, of considerable interest ("Meet Chris Rogers," February-March).

Clearly, she and I have much in common. While we have never met, I know that she knows as thoroughly as I that nothing is more important than helping others to use fully all their capabilities. We both have had to overcome handicaps.

Ms. Rogers, I salute you.

—Max Cleland, *administrator of veterans affairs, Veterans Administration, Washington, DC.*

Editor's Note: Mr. Cleland, who lost both legs and his right forearm in the Vietnam war, is the youngest person to head the Veterans Administration since its inception in 1930.

Chris Rogers comes across as a capable, dedicated teacher—a professional who cares deeply about her work. As a handicapped person myself, I would like to make several observations about the interview with her.

Ms. Rogers says she needs a full-time aide to help with her class because of her disability, which results from multiple sclerosis. Such accommodation is not necessary for many other disabled teachers. It is important that school officials who may work with handicapped teachers not presume that all of them will need the same accommodation. Doing what is necessary in each situation is what is important.

Ms. Rogers says she is not involved in civil rights groups for the handicapped. She says, "I try to relate to most people on a daily basis, and I don't identify with other handicapped people." Many of us disabled people, however, are committed deeply to civil rights efforts that will enable us to travel about freely and create better societal attitudes toward us. There is a time for us to identify with other disabled people and a time for us to identify with the larger human family of which we are a part. At the present time, the solidarity of handicapped people is necessary.

In the introduction to the interview, the interviewer refers to Ms. Rogers as being a "victim" of multiple sclerosis. I feel it is preferable to refer to someone as "having" a disability or disorder such as multiple sclerosis, rather than as being a victim of it. *Victim* has extremely negative connotations of helplessness, dependency, and inability—all of which are misleading.

—Lynn Park, *chief, Public Contact Group, Office of Communications, The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, DC; former NEA staff member.*

How fortunate that Ms. Rogers' colleagues and students are learning firsthand that her physically handicapping condition does not make her a less sensitive or capable teacher than she would be if she had no handicap.

Congratulations to the administration that recognizes a good teacher and makes accommodations so she can continue to be an asset to the profession.

—Vicki Woodburn, *resource teacher for the acoustically handicapped, Lincoln (Nebraska) Public Schools.*

Project for Disabled in Education

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) has announced the start of a one-year project titled Section 504 and Teacher Education. The purpose of the project is to identify and collect information on disabled persons in the profession of education. The information collected will be used to identify barriers that obstruct the entry and full participation of disabled persons from training and employment as teachers and administrators.

In order to ensure the success of the project, AACTE needs the expert consultation of disabled individuals in the education profession; disabled individuals who work in areas of education other than teaching and administration, such as federal, state, and local education agency employees; and disabled individuals who have been prevented or restricted from training or employment in education due to their disability. If you fit one of these categories and are willing to participate, write to Section 504 and Teacher Education Project, AACTE, Suite 610, One Dupont Circle, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

—Ralph Cyr *and* Diane Merchant, *co-directors, Section 504 and Teacher Education Project, AACTE.*

The Tibbettses Take Christenbury to Task

In your April-May 1979 issue, English teacher Marilyn Duff reviewed our book, *What's Happening to American English?* In the September-October 1979 issue, you published a letter from another English teacher, Leila Christenbury, who said that she "could hardly pay $8.95" for a book on English teaching containing "misconceptions." She listed five of these.

Judging from her letter, Ms. Christenbury read the review carelessly and our book not at all. Now your readers think that her list of "misconceptions" reflects our beliefs about English teaching.

It does not. For example, Ms. Christenbury erroneously reports us as believing that "the study of traditional grammar helps students to write better." On the contrary. In *What's Happening to American English?* we attack directly and in detail much of what passes as traditional grammar instruction. It is often wasteful, pedantic, and irrelevant to good writing.

To English teachers (and other interested people): If you disagree with our views on English teaching, fine. Write letters to us and the professional journals. But read our book first!

—Arn and Charlene Tibbetts, *Department of English, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.*

Child-Study Sessions

I agree that a child would profit from individual teacher-written anecdotal records, but the paperwork involved

(continued on page 78)

Research Clues

By JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD
Assistant Director, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

How do the audio, visual, and pacing elements of television viewing affect children?

The authors examine how these elements of television affect children's attention, comprehension, and social behavior. They find that the elements that attract and hold children's attention most effectively are nonverbal auditory techniques (sound effects, peculiar voices), action, and frequent changes or rapid pace. They tentatively conclude that children's comprehension of content may be increased if the attention-getting elements focus on central rather than incidental content. And they find that high action, fast-paced television segments, even if they do not portray violence, lead to a general state of arousal in children that can lead to increased aggression. The authors stress, however, that a general state of arousal may also lead to increases in appropriate or prosocial forms of behavior if these are better suited to the situation.

Most reviews of research on the effects of television on children report contradictory findings. This review reports a contradictory situation—that is, that television, which has become an integral part of almost all children's lives, must have some kinds of effects (it's been blamed for everything from declining achievement scores to the disintegration of the family), but research can find no strong, dramatic specific effects. Still, classroom teachers need to be aware of the research, simply because television viewing is an important common component of almost every student's background.

See Aletha Huston-Stein and John C. Wright. "Children and Television: Effects of the Medium, Its Content and Its Form." *Journal of Research and Development in Education* 13: 20-30; No. 1, 1979.

Does age of entrance affect school achievement?

Yes, in the early grades. This study found that students who were six years old when they entered school achieved higher in first and fourth grades than did students who were five years old when they entered school. The differences in achievement, as measured by test scores on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills, were found in reading, language, math, and total achievement scores. The same comparison for eighth grade students, however, found significant differences in reading achievement only.

The study used test scores of 17,000 students in grade one, 17,500 in grade four, and 19,450 in grade eight. With samples of this size, small differences in achievement become statistically significant, although they may not be significant in an educational sense. For example, in reading, language, and math, the pupils who started school at age six scored at the 49th, 50th, and 50th percentiles respectively, while those who started at age five scored at the 46th, 46th, and 47th percentiles. It is questionable whether these slight percentile differences reflect an educational problem worth worrying about—especially in those subjects where the differences are not reflected in eighth grade scores.

See B. Glen Davis, C. Scott Trimble, and Denny C. Vincent. "Does Age of Entrance Affect School Achievement?" *Elementary School Journal* 80: 133-43; No. 3, January 1980.

Do children of very young mothers achieve less in school than children of older mothers?

No, according to this study that compared the school performance of 157 eight-year-old Black children born to mothers 15 years of age or younger to the performance of 157 eight-year-old Black children born to mothers who were 20 to 24 years of age. The two groups were matched for socioeconomic status.

No significant differences between the two groups were found in academic achievement, behavior and social adjustment ratings, or school cumulative record data. The study examined these variables for the first three years of schooling.

This study illustrates that research which finds no differences can be of interest. Research on effects of schooling is genuinely hampered by the pervasive effects of student background. This study removes one such background variable from consideration.

See Betty H. Morrow. "Elementary School Performance of Offspring of Young Adolescent Mothers." *American Educational Research Journal* 16: 429-29; No. 4, Fall 1979.

Are "memory aid systems" useful in education?

Yes, argues this review of research on visual mnemonics (using visual imagery to aid memorization). The review finds that the use of visual imagery can help students learn sentence structure, vocabulary, prose material, concepts, and foreign languages.

The author argues that memory aid systems are almost never used in schools because educators resist the idea that memorization is an important part of schooling. He points out, however, that learning basic facts is the first minimum requirement of students in schools, and improvement in memorization would help students learn basic facts more easily so they could then proceed toward higher educational goals, such as critical thinking.

See Kenneth L. Higbee. "Recent Research on Visual Mnemonics: Historical Roots and Educational Fruits." *Review of Educational Research* 49: 611-29; No. 4, Fall 1979.

How can teachers make homework a more effective learning experience?

This article classifies types of homework assignments and provides guidelines to help teachers make the assignments more effective for student learning.

The authors point out that research neither supports nor refutes the idea that homework improves achievement. If teachers give homework, however, they argue, the assignments should follow some prescribed rules.

Teachers should first determine the purpose of an assignment. *Practice* assignments should help students master basic skills that have already been presented in class. *Preparation* assignments should help students benefit from subsequent lessons (e.g., define vocabulary terms that will be used in the next lesson). *Extension* assignments should ask students to use a new skill or concept in a new situation (e.g., after having learned the causes of the French Revolution, students could compare these to the causes of the American Revolution). *Creative* assignments should ask students to integrate many skills and concepts (e.g., a book report or research project).

The authors also provide a set of criteria that all homework assignments should meet. Assignments should be

related to learning outcomes that students perceive as meaningful; should minimize demands on student and teacher time, but yield maximum benefits; should be clearly and thoroughly described; and should be within the ability range of all students in the class.

See Jackson F. Lee, Jr., and K. Wayne Pruitt. "Homework Assignments: Classroom Games or Teaching Tools?" *The Clearing House* 53: 31-35; Fall 1979.

Does classroom seating arrangement affect student behavior?

Yes, according to two well-designed studies reported in this article. In the first study, 17 second grade children sat facing each other at 4- and 5-person tables for 10 days and then in rows of 4 or 5 desks for the next 10 days. They returned to the tables for 7 more days, and to the rows for a final 7 days. During the entire 34 days, observers recorded their study behavior on a number of dimensions and developed an overall measure of their study level.

The results showed that average study levels for each time period were as follows: at tables, (10 days), 60 percent; in rows (10 days), 82 percent; at tables (7 days), 63 percent; and in rows (7 days), 83 percent. Plainly, the students showed much better study behavior when seated in rows than when seated at tables.

The second study employed a similar design with a classroom of 32 seventh grade students. They sat at tables for 5 days, in rows for the next 10 days, and at tables again for the last 5 days.

This study, however, measured the number of "talk-outs" (audible, verbal sounds students made without the teacher's permission) the class made each day. During the first 5 days at tables, talk-outs averaged 58; during the 10 days in rows, they averaged 30; and during the last 5 days at tables, they averaged 50. Seating in rows resulted in an obvious decrease in inappropriate student behavior—in this case, talking out.

In my view, three points should be emphasized when interpreting these results. First, the study design is a strong one in psychological research, which in general provides results that can be attributed to the treatment factors examined and not to other causes. In other words, seating arrangements almost certainly account for the measured differences in behavior.

Second, the reader should recognize that the measured behavior occurred during two instructional modes—teacher-directed instruction and individual seatwork—in which interaction of students is not appropriate. Seating students in rows structurally prohibits such interaction much more effectively than seating students at tables where they face one another.

Third, neither study links the behavioral results to increased academic achievement. Improved study behavior and less talking out may be factors influencing achievement, but these studies do not make the linkage empirically; consequently, it cannot be assumed.

See Saul Axelrod, R. Vance Hall, and Ann Tams. "Comparison of Two Common Classroom Seating Arrangements." *Academic Therapy* 15: 29-36; No. 1, September 1979.

How can teachers use "time-out" procedures with disruptive students?

This article defines what "time-out" procedures are and describes three approaches that teachers can use to help disruptive students in the classroom.

The basic premise of time-out is that it is a way to deal with disruptive behavior without hostile or punitive retaliation. The authors describe three approaches: the behavioral approach (establishing a period of time during which the student is deprived of the rewards of being among his or her classmates); the cooling-off approach (allowing a student to remove himself or herself voluntarily from a stressful situation and providing adult help during the period of removal); and the modified approaches, which include various modifications of the first two approaches.

The authors identify a series of critical steps that are required in using the time-out approaches: identify the serious behavior, designate a specific area for time-out, immediately place or provide for the placement of the pupil in the designated area, monitor the actual time spent in time-out, return the student to the usual class routine as soon as possible, and evaluate the effect of the time-out procedure, including maintenance of records showing frequency and duration.

See M. Katherine Grayson, John Kinaly, Jr., and Archie J. McKinnon. "Using Time-Out Procedures with Disruptive Students." *The Pointer* 24: 74-81; No. 1, Fall 1979.

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Teacher Opinion Poll

Retirement for Teachers

About three-fourths (76 percent) of public school teachers support the concept of Social Security, even though less than one-half (46 percent) feel that coverage under the U.S. system should be mandatory for all employed taxpayers. Three-fourths (75 percent) believe that homemakers should have the option of purchasing Social Security coverage. Teachers in the Northeast are more likely not only to support the concept of Social Security, but also to want coverage mandatory for all employed taxpayers and optional for homemakers.

These are some of the results of NEA Research's latest Teacher Opinion Poll. The Poll, completed in the spring of 1979, questioned more than 2,000 public school teachers.

Although most of the respondents had an opinion about the kind of retirement benefits that were best for them, about one-half said they had not studied the benefits they would get upon retirement. Of those who had studied their prospective benefits, two-thirds said they were *not* satisfied with them.

More than one-half (56 percent) of all respondents said they contributed to both a teacher retirement system and Social Security, while 40 percent said they contributed to the former only.

About one-half would prefer to contribute to both a teacher retirement system and Social Security, more than one-fourth preferred a teacher retirement system only, and about 2 percent preferred Social Security only. The rest had no opinion. Compared to their colleagues in the Middle West and West, teachers in the Northeast and Southeast were more likely to prefer a combination of a teacher retirement system and Social Security. In addition, they were more likely to say that both systems were available to them.

Almost one-half (46 percent) of all respondents feel the federal government should use general tax revenues to subsidize the cost of Social Security, although almost one-third feel it should not. About one-fourth had no opinion.

Two-fifths (41 percent) would like to have a national retirement plan for teachers; one-third said it's not necessary.

—NEA Research.

The Teacher and the Law

Title IX and School Sports

Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments was passed to ensure equal treatment of males and females in educational institutions that receive federal funding. While the statute's most notable result thus far may be the increase in the number of women entering "male" fields such as medicine, law, and management, the greatest publicity and controversy surrounding it have come from activities outside classrooms and study halls. For when the law ordered the end of male domination, it turned out that the most sacred turf on campus was not the library or laboratory but the football field.

Colleges and male athletic groups balked at the idea of male athletes' sharing facilities and money with female athletes. They were especially concerned about the possible loss of funds for football teams. Football, a major money-eater in many athletic programs, was not just another sport, they charged, but an American institution. One defender of the status quo reportedly explained that the question was not limited to funds and facilities for men and women but for men, women, and football players.

In 1975, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare issued regulations to implement Title IX in athletics. The regulations called for equity for men and women athletes in scholarships, equipment, facilities, coaching, and other components of sports programs.

They said that schools could sponsor sex-segregated teams where the sport was based upon "competitive skill" or the activity was a "contact sport." However, a member of a sex whose opportunities in a particular sport previously had been limited could try out for the school team if the school sponsored only one such team and the activity was "noncontact." Contact sports were defined as "boxing, wrestling, rugby, ice hockey, football, basketball, and other sports the purpose or major activity of which involves bodily contact." Institutions were given until July 1978 to comply with the regulations.

Colleges and universities claimed that the regulations failed to provide adequate guidance on how they could comply with the law. Women's organizations charged that Title IX was being ignored in the sphere of college athletics. In response to the confusion, (then) HEW Secretary Joseph Califano issued a draft Title IX Intercollegiate Athletics Policy Interpretation. It was meant to assist institutions, faculty, and students in understanding, and complying with, Title IX. If clarity was the policy's aim, however, it missed its mark.

The policy included a presumption of compliance if per-capita expenditures for male and female athletes were equal and called for substantially equal treatment in "nonfinancial" matters. The policy was riddled with vague, open-ended exemptions that were vulnerable to abuse, however. Also, it appeared from the policy's language that the July 1978 deadline for equally accommodating the athletic needs of male and female students had been indefinitely extended. The National Education Association filed comments urging the closing of the many exemptions and the substitution of more defined rules for the presumption of compliance. NEA expressed its concern that the policy lead to the enforcement, rather than the evasion, of Title IX.

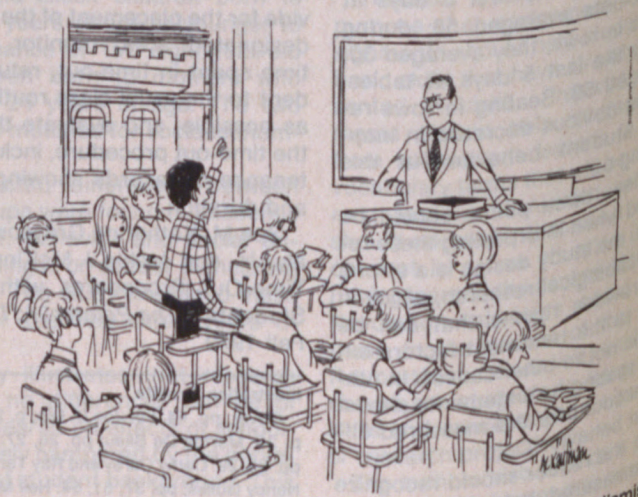
A year later, in December 1979, the new HEW Secretary, Patricia Harris, issued the final Policy Interpretation. It removes any presumption of compliance and substitutes a checklist of criteria. For example, athletic scholarships, benefits, and opportunities must be provided for men and women in proportion to their participation in sports. Items such as equipment, travel expenses, publicity, scheduling of games and practice times are to be analyzed in some detail qualitatively and, when appropriate, financially. Most of the vague loopholes have been removed in the new policy.

Of particular interest is the expanded discussion of coaching compensation. Equity will be assessed according to "rate of compensation; duration of contracts; conditions relating to contract renewal; experience; nature of coaching duties performed; working conditions and other terms and conditions of employment."

Schools are also required to "effectively accommodate the interests and abilities" of all their students so that each sex has equal opportunity to participate in athletics. Compliance will be assessed on the basis of the institution's efforts to determine the interests of its students, the selection of sports offered, and the levels of competition available. This portion of the policy still fails to address fully the need to raise the rate of female participation in athletics to the overall ratio of women to men student population.

While women's equity groups were dismayed by the long delay in issuing the policy—and the consequent holdup of processing of these complaints—they were generally pleased by the new direction and content of the policy.

The president of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), Carole H. Mushier, issued a statement that says, "The policies appear to strike a reasonable and workable balance between the legal and moral obligations of institutions to provide equal opportunities for female student athletes and the need to permit



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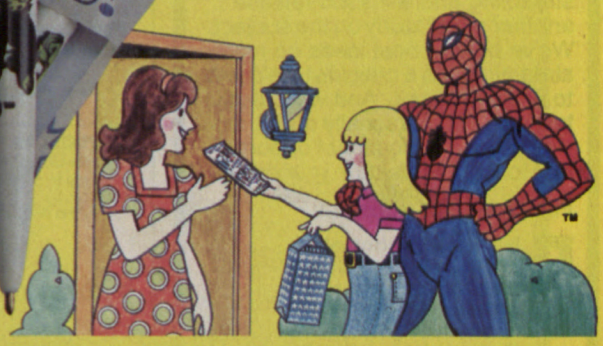

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The Teacher and the Law

(continued)

each institution to design and imple
ment its own nondiscriminatory athleti
program."

The National Collegiate Athletic As
sociation (NCAA), which represent
men's athletics, was less enthusiastic
its response. NCAA assistant executive
director Tom Hansen characterized th
policies as "quite demanding, qui
complicated, and difficult to administe
because of their complexity." Hanse
was particularly disturbed by the schol
arship provision, which, he claimed
failed to "take account of ability."

Regardless of the strength of the lan
guage, the policy is only as potent a
the enforcement effort of those as
signed its implementation, originall
HEW's Office for Civil Rights (OCR).
This month, these responsibilities wi
be transferred to the Office for Civ
Rights in the new Department of Educa
tion. NEA is working with the gover
ment to ensure that the policy's lan
guage is translated into action that wi
achieve sex equity in school sports pro
grams.

OCR staff say a series of three meet
ings will be held regionally to explain the
new policy to involved parties. A group
of HEW Title IX experts, along with a
full-time consultant assigned exclusive
ly to the policy's implementation, will
attend all of these meetings. Also, a new
investigative manual, based on the poli
cy, is planned for the use of OCR
regional field staff.

While the policy does not specifically
address the question of secondary
schools, an OCR staff member says thi
policy will cover secondary schools
"when applicable." HEW has told wom
en's organizations that administrators
and coaches will be sent a memoran
dum to that effect.

Fortunately, the new Office for Civi
Rights in the Department of Education
will have greater autonomy and power
than its predecessor organization at
HEW. The priority allocated Title IX in
this office may determine the true effect
of the policy.

Some argue that sex equity in school
athletics threatens an American tradi
tion, but female athletes argue that a
tradition offered to only half our popula
tion is not very American.

—**Barbara Stein,** *NEA Teacher
Rights.*

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VIOLENCE IN THE SCHOOLS

By WILLARD McGUIRE
NEA President.

We have read about the problems for years: disruptions, vandalism, threats, beatings, even murder—and damage that forces taxpayers to spend millions of dollars a year, not to improve our schools but just to repair them and to make them safe.

Newspapers and magazines relate the horror stories: a high school student in Virginia bit off a third of his teacher's ear during a scuffle; a student in Oregon turned his teacher over in a chair during class; a third grader in rural Missouri twisted a teacher's thumb and tore several ligaments; students in California, angry over their low marks, set their teacher's hair on fire, and the teacher was criticized for leaving the classroom when she went to get help.

Shocking incidents occur daily across the country. Ten years ago, the profession and public were concerned about scattered schoolhouse pranks and disturbances; today, they are alarmed about violent crimes.

School vandalism diverts some $600 million annually from education budgets—enough to buy a year's worth of textbooks or pay the salaries of 50,000 more first-year teachers without increasing taxes a nickel. The cost is a crippling strain on financially strapped education budgets.

Stress has become so widespread in teaching that increasing numbers of teachers, especially in urban areas, are leaving the profession.

Teachers cannot teach when they must police.

The problems do not start in the schools, but they wind up there, and they must be dealt with there. Past attempts to deal with the problems have

This feature on "Violence in the Schools" was prepared by NEA Communications staff members, including Marshall O. Donley, Jr., Ben Kittner, and Jane Power.

failed for several reasons. These include lack of coordination of effort by various agencies and groups, lack of willingness on the part of agencies and groups to commit themselves to the long-range programs required to produce any lasting results, lack of funds and resources to carry out programs, and apathy.

One point is clear: Police, parents, and legislators cannot solve the problems alone. Moreover, if they are going to be solved, the Association will have to lead the way.

This *Today's Education* feature includes an article by Francis A. J. Ianni and Elizabeth Reuss-Ianni of Columbia University, which gives statistics on school violence and vandalism and discusses ways changes in the school can reduce these. Other articles in the feature describe teachers' efforts to stop violence, vandalism, and discipline problems in the cities of San Antonio, Texas, and Portland, Oregon, and in the states of New Jersey and Hawaii.

Teachers deal with discipline problems, violence, and vandalism every day. The following articles give evidence that teachers are creating a public awareness and a demand for solutions that will bring about school conditions that are safer and more conducive to learning. □

NEA RESOLUTION ON PROTECTION OF SCHOOL PERSONNEL

The National Education Association and its affiliates shall work together to insist upon development and enforcement of laws that guarantee the safety of educators and other school personnel from physical attacks on their persons or property, and that provide reimbursement for loss. In no event shall time lost due to injury caused by such physical attacks be deducted from the teacher's accumulated sick leave.

The Association will also develop guidelines for action leading to prevention of verbal abuse or harassment of educators and other school personnel by any individuals. Educators must take the responsibility to call attention to such cases so that appropriate action may be taken.

The Association believes that when school personnel are the victims of physical attack, verbal abuse, harassment, or theft, they should receive the full support of their employer in pursuing legal and other remedies.

The Association further believes that the local association must have the right to reflect the concerns of the profession at a student suspension or expulsion hearing.

The Association urges its affiliates to cooperate with juvenile court systems to secure strict enforcement of juvenile law in cases involving disturbances in the public schools.

— Passed by 1979 NEA Representative Assembly.

WHAT CAN SCHOOLS DO ABOUT VIOLENCE

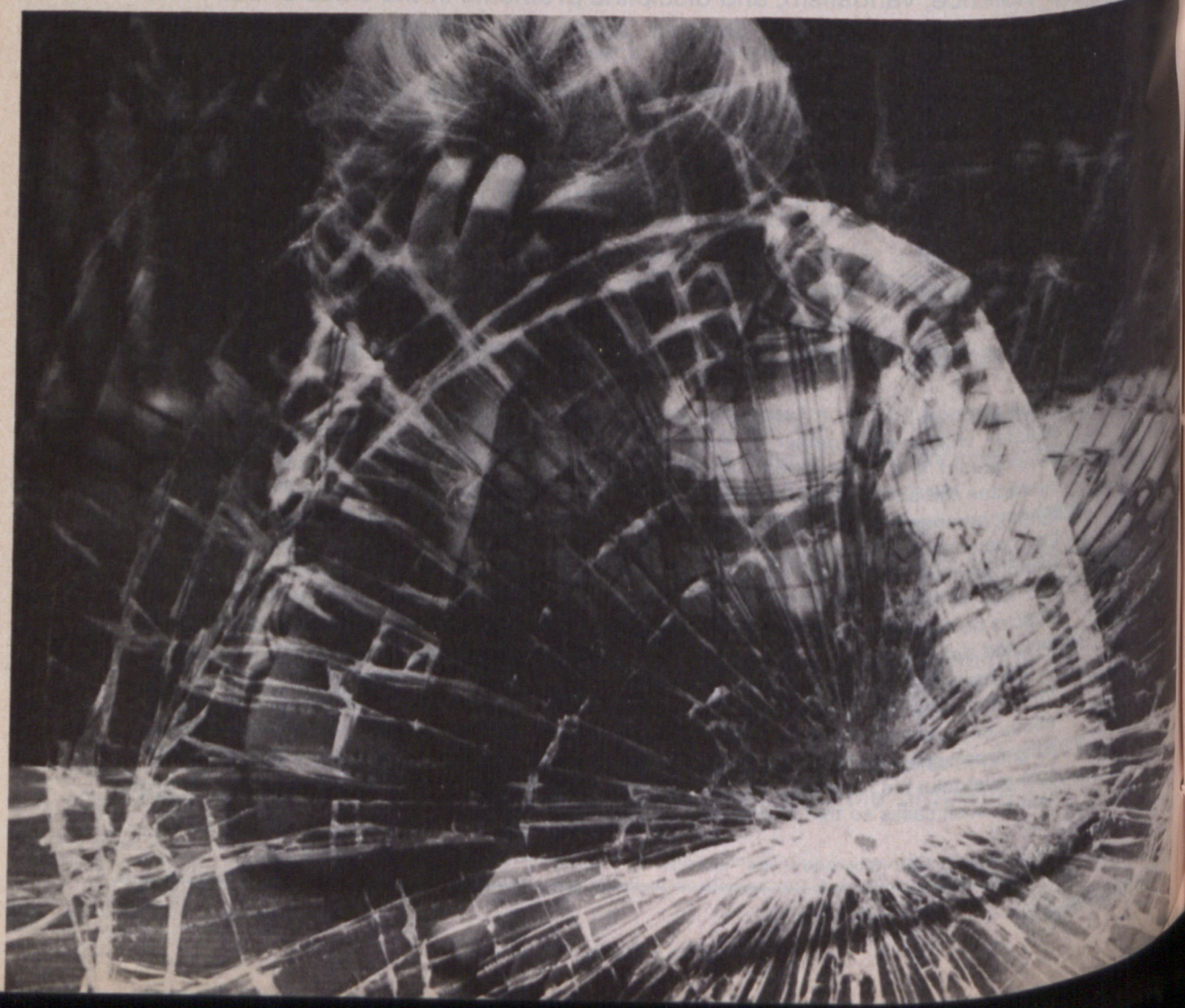
What are the nature and extent of violence and crime in American schools?

- What role do schools themselves play in producing, aggravating, or reducing school crime?
- How can changes in schools, as distinct from changes in society, remedy the problems we seem to be having with social controls?

By FRANCIS A. J. IANNI
Professor of Education and Director of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University, and
ELIZABETH REUSS-IANNI
Research Director, Institute for Social Analysis, New York City.

In 1978, we worked on the Safe School Study conducted by the National Institute of Education. This and similar work of ours and of others provide the statistics and examples we use in discussing these questions.

Research indicates that during the sixties both acts of violence and property destruction in schools increased. After the school year 1971-72, both rates leveled off. Most of the studies indicate that assaults on teachers increased from 1956 to 1974 but leveled off thereafter; that robberies



and assaults increased in the early seventies; and that vandalism increased in the mid-sixties and leveled off after 1970 or 1971. The studies do not indicate that the rates of the offenses we call violence and vandalism are currently growing worse.

Some characteristics of communities over which schools have little control seem to be related to higher rates of crime and disruption in schools. For example, the proportion of schools seriously affected by violence declines with community size, from 15 percent in large cities to 6 percent in suburban and 4 percent in rural areas.

It seems clear, however, that schools do not simply reflect community crime rates. In a number of schools we studied, the incidence of school violence and vandalism had declined while crime rates in the schools' immediate communities had soared. In some of these schools, parents reported that they felt their children were safer within the school than outside it. Teachers and administrators in these schools also said they felt safer in the schools than traveling through the surrounding communities.

The role of the school in structuring the disruption which takes place within it is also apparent in the fact that, except for trespassing and breaking and entering, most reported offenses in schools are committed by current students.

Of the characteristics over which schools have some control, the age-grade structure seems to be the one that is the most directly related to the nature and extent of crime in schools. To a lesser extent, it seems that disproportionate racial and ethnic balances in a school can bring victimization of the smaller groups.

Seventh graders are the most likely to be attacked or robbed; twelfth graders are least so; and at age 13, the risks are apparently highest. We believe that moving out of the more protective elementary school context into the less self-contained structure of junior high school is the major factor here.

Most offenses in schools involve victims and offenders of the same race (58 percent). But the fact that 42 percent of offenses are interracial indicates that interracial conflict is a serious problem. The smaller the size of a minority group in the school, the greater the likelihood that members of other racial groups will commit offenses against members of the minority.

Studies have found that a number of other school-specific factors are related to school crime and disorder.

Crowding is one important factor. Schools which had major disruptions in the late sixties and early seventies often had many more students than they were designed to serve. According to many teachers and parents, later reduction of the number of students in these schools was accompanied by a decline in violence and disruption.

In our observations we found that the locations of violence and disruption were usually crowded areas—stairways, hallways, and cafeterias. Many staff told us that control of students was easier in classrooms, where students can be identified as individuals, than in the disorder of the halls and stairs during change of classes.

School size in general is another important factor. Large schools have a higher incidence of and more serious crime and disruption than smaller schools.

In small schools, students are individually identifiable. A number of administrators, teachers, counselors, and security personnel whom we interviewed said that in a small school "there is no place to hide." In some of these schools, the principal knew not only each student but each student's family as well.

In large schools, in the absence of some form of identification, it is impossible to identify outsiders. In schools on split sessions, school personnel can never be certain who is and who is not supposed to be in the building at a given time.

Not only can students be easily identified in small schools, but they are more likely to identify with the school, with other students, and with teachers and to join in the activities and programs of the school. This characteristic, which seems quite close to what was called "school spirit" in an earlier day, is difficult if not impossible to develop in large, urban secondary schools which have 4,000 or 5,000 students.

While school spirit has usually been portrayed as a student characteristic, large school size also reduces the ability of the teachers to relate to students. It thus seems to help cause the considerable apprehension teachers feel in urban schools.

Students unable to identify with a large school as a whole frequently claim control over particular portions of the school and even over "turfs" on the sidewalks outside of the school in much the same way that prisoners set up "courts" or territories in prison yards.

These territorial claims are often based on ethnicity. In these cases, they not only reduce interaction among ethnic groups but are a source of potential conflict.

According to the Safe School Study, classrooms are the safest places, considering the amount of time spent there. Students' risk of violent encounter is greatest during the time between classes, especially in senior high schools. More than half of all thefts, on the other hand, occur during class. Next to classrooms, lockers are the sites of most thefts.

Nationwide, 1 out of 6 secondary school students in the Safe School Study reported avoiding three or more places in school because he or she believed them to be hazardous. When students' uneasiness reaches the limits of tolerance, they stay away from school altogether.

Students who have actually been victims of attack or robbery in schools are more likely than other students to

say that they are afraid both on the way to school and in school. They are also more likely to say that their own grades are low or below average.

Victimized students are likely to be having behavioral problems in school and are twice as likely as others to report having been expelled from another school.

They also are more likely to report that they are punished by their parents if they get into trouble in school. If these perceptions are accurate, both home and school are less supportive and more punitive to students who are victimized than to other students.

Teachers, administrators, and students report that not only do the victims of attack and robbery share many characteristics with students who have been identified as offenders, but they are more likely than nonvictims to be offenders themselves.

Teachers and administrators we have interviewed complain that a small group of youngsters—the term most frequently used was "hard core"—produces most of the violence and disruption in schools. Many teachers and administrators estimate that this group is "about 10 to 15 percent" and that the other 85 to 90 percent of students are seldom either victims or offenders.

To some extent these reports may be the result of that sorting of youngsters by which the school seems to modify patterns of social relations by defining some youngsters as uneducable and violent. The hard core may, however, represent an actual deviant group within the school community. Members of this group do not seem to come from any specific racial, ethnic, or socioeconomic background. School staff commonly describe them as students who have difficulty academically, are frequently in trouble in the community, and come from troubled homes.

Teachers, administrators, and students, however, indicate that this group of troublesome students can find allies among other students when specific situations arise. Thus school violence and disruptive behavior can be described as interactive: A small group of students frequently causes problems and at times sets off a chain reaction among other students.

The schools are often unable to deal with this group of troublesome students. The most common treatment reported is suspension, but very few educators say that suspensions are effective either as deterrents or as treatment. Staff members often complain about the unavailability of adequate counseling or psychiatric help. More and more, school systems are transferring troublesome students to other schools. School staff often suggested, however, that these students require special training and socialization experience.

What makes school disorders most significant for education is their effect on the climate of the school. In addition to the actual costs in terms of people and dollars, crime and disorder in schools disrupt learning. Since schools are charged with much of the responsibility for socialization, school disruption can have a lasting effect on youth and can spread out into the community and into the future. Also, crime and disruption and the potential for it can have serious effects on teachers, who find that fear for personal safety is detrimental to effective teaching. A safe school is necessary for effective learning and efficient teaching to take place.

The responsibility for prevention and control of school crime has always rested more heavily on the school than on the community. Historically, this unevenness is based on the doctrine of *in loco parentis*: The parent delegates some authority over the child to the teacher. The doctrine covers the school's right to discipline the child.

In recent decades, schools have emphasized the more positive developmental aspects of discipline, and students have challenged the more negative forms in the courts. One of the legacies of the considerable media attention to school crime and disruption, however, is that today interest in reaffirming the school's right to use the more negative aspects of discipline is growing.

At the same time, new interest has arisen in the more positive kind of school discipline—that which arises from good governance. The governance procedures which shape behavior are usually expressed in school rules and regulations. They are even more frequently found in informal social control: the importance or lack of importance attributed to academic excellence, the structure of order, and the development of an identification with the mission of the school. These elements are, we believe, the important components of the governance structure of a school.

Evidence is abundant that school governance thus broadly defined is the major factor determining the level of crime and disruption in schools. Students' perception of the school as maintaining order and teachers' perception of their own ability to maintain order in class are positively related to lower losses, measured in dollars, from vandalism and theft. So are good coordination and mutual support between administration and faculty.

Also, school crime and disruption are reduced in schools where students say they can identify with the teachers and have access to them and where ethnic and racial harmony are great.

Conversely, where teachers' behavior shows a lack of respect for students and where competition among students is strong, property losses tend to increase.

We are going to describe a specific pattern of school governance with a number of very distinctive features. These features were the most frequently cited reasons for success in the schools we have studied which were safe and just as obviously absent from those which were not. More important, the same features were reported to be responsible for the improvement in *turnaround* schools—those which had reversed a pattern of violence and disorder.

The most obvious and most frequently cited factor was the leadership style of the principal. Often the turnaround point in a school that was once considered unsafe and out of control was the arrival of a new principal. Wherever principals were described as dynamically moving the schools forward, students, community residents, and school staff frequently cited their educational leadership and the new educational programs they installed.

Visibility and availability to students and staff are two other characteristics of the principals in schools which have made a dramatic turnaround from periods of violence. Conversely, in schools which remained in difficulty, the principals were most frequently cited as the major problem.

Often they were described as "unavailable and ineffective."

The principal's ability to initiate a structure of order in the school was equally important. A number of recent research findings indicate that a firm, fair, and consistent structure of order is an important determinant of success in many areas of education, from the teaching of reading to the establishment of a climate conducive to learning.

In such a governance system, discipline and sanctions, as well as rewards, are handed out in an evenhanded fashion. Students and faculty are aware of the consequences of specific acts and aware that exceptions are rarely, if ever, made. In unsuccessful schools, on the other hand, rule enforcement in the academic areas tends to be highly arbitrary and seems to serve disciplinary rather than educational ends.

Of particular importance was the principal's responsiveness to teachers' and students' opinions about school policy. In some cases this meant a receptivity to participation by students and teachers in making decisions; in others, a willingness to make known how decisions would be made and a practice of following these procedures with openness and honesty.

A number of characteristics of teachers also seem to be important in those schools where a successful governance program is part of the structure of social control. High self-esteem, job satisfaction, and general agreement with the principal's educational and procedural styles indicate the high morale common in successful schools. Teachers in such schools report that they are in those particular schools because they want to be there.

Cohesiveness among teachers and a sense of identification with students are other characteristics frequently mentioned. Generally, high faculty morale seems to be associated with a strong sense of school spirit among students.

Far from being simply the victim of external social forces, the school plays a major role in determining the incidence of school crime and disruption. Today only 8 percent of the elementary and secondary schools in the country are still being seriously affected by crime, violence, and disruption, while crime and delinquency rates in the community continue to grow. This indicates that schools have been able to resist external social trends and maintain their own social controls.

We have suggested a number of organizational variables over which schools have control—paramount among them being the governance pattern—that can make major differences in providing an orderly climate in which learning can occur.

Although many of these changes are within the control of the school itself, nevertheless, it is important for the school to maintain appropriate relationships with the community and with other parts of the educational system. Lacking such relationships, schools become isolated from the help they need to carry out their educating and socializing roles.

The results of such isolation are apparent in the case of those large urban secondary schools which show the highest incidence of crime and disruption. Principals in such schools more frequently report that they receive little support from the central administration than do other principals.

A number of other factors relating to school crime and disruption depend on resources outside the school. The critical importance of the principal's leadership style, for example, means that the training programs at universities and the selection and placement practices of school systems must be such as to locate, prepare, develop, and support suitable leaders.

In making decisions that affect the number and location of schools, communities should examine the relationship of school size to the dysfunctional effects of overcrowding and anonymity. Similarly, we should reconsider the age-grade structure of schools which presents seventh graders with the problems of adjusting to a new and much less structured school environment at the age when they seem least able to adjust to it.

Schools should turn to appropriate juvenile as well as other community agencies for help when—but only when—it is necessary. Schools have traditionally been reluctant to call in the police for all except the most serious situations, and then often too late. Every major report on school crime and disruption points to an apparent tendency of schools to underreport crimes. Most serious attacks and fights are not reported to the police. Even of those involving weapons or injury, only one-sixth are reported.

Throughout our experience in looking at school crime and disruption, we found that emphasis on people rather than devices, on preventive discipline rather than the presence of large numbers of security personnel, provided the most successful means of keeping schools safe.

Early identification of the youngsters in that small group most frequently associated with school violence and disorder also is important. Early identification should lead to adequate socialization for such students from early in their school careers, as well as to guidance programs and psychiatric care when necessary. Such measures should be characterized by a positive and preventive rather than a punitive style.

At present we are faced with a very real danger. Despite research indications to the contrary, the public continues to believe that school crime is escalating at an alarming rate. Until public opinion catches up with research, the schools may be tempted to turn increasingly to criminal justice instead of educational solutions.

Research on the social organization of schools indicates that there are structural changes and techniques of social control which do work in schools. Such changes in schools and in how they relate to their communities are within the school's own span of control and do not require major societal adjustments. They have the additional advantage that they have not been tried elsewhere and failed. □

This article was adapted from "School Crime and the Social Order of the School." *IRCD Bulletin* (Institute for Urban and Minority Education, Teachers College, Columbia University) 14; No. 1, Winter 1979.

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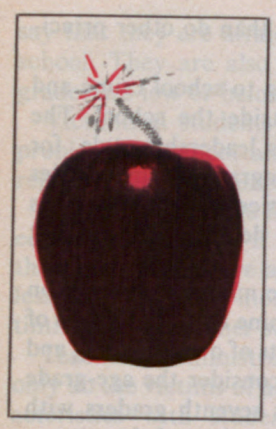


HOW EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS FIGHT VIOLENCE: NEW JERSEY

New Jersey teachers have a serious problem of violence and vandalism in the schools—2,600 cases were reported in just two months, May and June of 1979.

But that statistic has a second meaning: Forces in New Jersey are mobilizing to fight back, and legislative efforts by the New Jersey Education Association (NJEA) are an important part of the fight. The state reporting system that collected the figures above was set up, in April 1979, because of a new law that NJEA backed. Before that, no comprehensive reporting system existed.

The new system rests on a checklist, quick and easy to fill out. A report of an incident can travel from the person affected to the county superintendent of schools within 10 days and from there to the state commissioner of education.

Use of the checklist can reduce the number of incidents that are covered up locally; thus it can show which localities have special problems. The state commissioner is due to present an analysis of the results, with recommendations for reducing the incidence, to the legislature in June 1981.

NJEA has backed several other bills to help protect teachers from attack. One, now a state law, requires immediate suspension of any student who assaults a school employee. The school board must hold hearings on expulsion of the student within 21 days. Students who commit a second offense are suspended until all criminal charges have been settled, however long it takes.

Now in the legislature is an NJEA-backed bill to make penalties for juveniles who attack school employees the same as for those who attack police or firefighters, raising the maximum sentence from six months to three years. Another legislative proposal provides that 14-year-olds who injure school staff members be tried as adults.

"Now," says John Pietrowicz, staff contact of NJEA's Working Conditions Committee, "we have to get some alternative schools and classes for kids in trouble."

NJEA has not only pressed directly for new legislation but has strongly influenced the recommendations, presented in May 1979, of the state's Task Force on Violence, Vandalism, and Disruption in the Schools. These recommendations call not only for further state legislation, but for changes in the state's education administrative code and action by local districts. The Association's representatives on the 22-member task force were Atlantic County chemistry teacher Harry Knobloch, chair of NJEA's Working Conditions Committee, and John Pietrowicz.

"I was the only classroom teacher in the group, and it was hard to get some of the nonteaching members to recognize what it's like to teach in an atmosphere of disruption," Knobloch recalls. "But because the group represented different viewpoints, the public accepts its recommendations."

The Task Force eventually incorporated all of NJEA's existing policy recommendations on the subject into its 47 recommendations. These range from ways to give troubled youngsters special help to special training for staff and streamlining for the juvenile justice system. NJEA's Delegate Assembly found it could endorse 46 of them. (It rejected a call for a check on criminal records of prospective employees because it might lead to fingerprinting or to discrimination against former strikers.)

NJEA itself has taken several kinds of action to help its members and locals reduce violence and vandalism. Locals can give parents NJEA's leaflets and information sheets on discipline. The Association has also published lists of suggestions on what teachers and association representatives can do when assaults occur and has circulated information about on-the-job injuries.

In October 1979, NJEA sponsored a conference on cutting school violence and vandalism, held in two locations on two successive Saturdays. The idea for the program came from the Association's Youth Services Committee, and the state Department of Education and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency were cosponsors.

About 150 people holding all kinds of positions in all kinds of school systems attended sessions on early detection, planning the environment to reduce violence, curriculum approaches to violence, specific school crime problems, developing school policy, teachers' legal rights, and conflict management. This program made a full and rather breathtaking day; participants wanted to see it repeated and expanded.

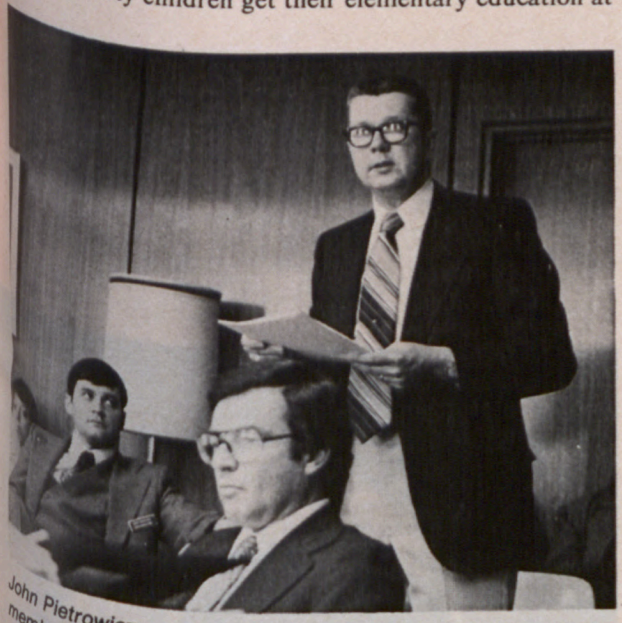
In November, sessions at the NJEA convention described issues related to violence and vandalism and some outstanding local efforts.

The convention participants had a chance to find out about the Bergenfield project, for example. Now in its eighth year, this project involves the schools, the police,

and many community groups. Together, with support from the New Jersey Health Department, they plan and carry on several programs to prevent delinquency.

Because the programs are preventive, they concentrate on the elementary level. Rather than teach specific content, classroom activities build self-respect, the ability to make wise decisions, and an understanding of group dynamics. Evan Goldman, an NEA director who has been president of the Bergenfield Education Association for 12 years, expresses one idea behind the project: "If you treat the children like people, they act like people."

Located a few miles from New York City, Bergenfield has a lot of blue-collar workers and some executives. Unemployment is running at about 6 percent. Most of the town's minority children get their elementary education at



John Pietrowicz, an NJEA Field Services coordinator and member of the State Task Force on Violence, Vandalism, and Disruption in the Schools, reports to the State Board of Education on the Task Force findings. Listening to his presentation are NJEA member Harry Knobloch (left), also a member of the Task Force, and Board member David Brandt (foreground).

the Hoover School.

Ed Callison, Hoover's principal, says the self-respect program is the key to helping the pupils avoid delinquency as they grow older. A contract system for schoolwork and behavior helps. "Everyone signs the contract," says Callison, "the teacher, the kid, the parent, the principal—then maybe, for example, the reward is to help the custodian, so he signs, too."

Bergenfield superintendent Rocco Montesano has his own part in preventing delinquency. He knows most of his 4,300 students by name, often sits in the lounge or shoots baskets with them. Students are welcome to bring their problems to his office in a wing of Bergenfield High School or to call his home outside of school hours.

Every few weeks Montesano meets with 25 or 30 students from grades 7 through 12—not just the model students, but a cross section. "If you give me a problem, give me a solution," Montesano requires—and the students have brought in and solved some tough ones. Currently a pilot project is tackling smoking in the bathrooms.

The superintendent isn't abdicating responsibility: "Input isn't a decision," he says. But input can make a difference.

"It's the kids' having a say in running the schools that prevents school crime," asserts Gavin L. Blane, chief of the Bergenfield Police Department. Since 1970, the annual cost of vandalism in Bergenfield has dropped significantly, the chief says.

Where do the police fit in? "They aren't trying to see how many people they can bust," says Evan Goldman. "They're trying to prevent delinquency. After all, a lot of them are parents or former students themselves."

Police officers visit the fifth grade classes several times a year, letting the children get to know them. On the last visit, the officer, the teacher, and their husbands or wives take the class on an excursion. "They start the year asking how many people we've killed, and we end up as all human beings together," says a juvenile officer.

But the project in Bergenfield goes beyond the schools and police to the community. In one program, 60 households have volunteered to undergo training and take in youngsters in trouble for periods of up to 10 days. These young people have never been charged with an offence; their trouble is at home or with their own feelings or behavior.

The students and their parents both must agree to the visit. They get at least three sessions of counseling or other help before the visit is over. "This way they keep on going to school," says Chief Blane. "And if they're having trouble at home, school is where their base of support is."

The Bergenfield project is well-established, a model which the New Jersey Health Department uses to start other communities thinking about what they can do to prevent school crime.

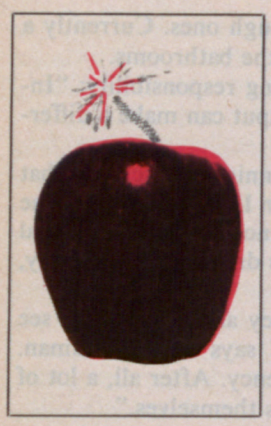
Another, very new project in the state has just started in Jersey City with NEA and local association backing.

"If we all recognize each other's needs, the kids won't leave school angry," says human relations specialist Michael Burke of Jersey City, and this can prevent trouble. Burke has set himself a challenge: to cut violence and vandalism in the city's schools by 35 percent in three years. The Hilda Maehling Fellowship Committee and the Jersey City Education Association are backing his idea.

Burke's first step in this first year of the project has been to hold workshops for parents and teachers—notably for teams of two teachers and one parent from each of the 15 of Jersey City's schools that suffers the most vandalism.

The teams exchange ideas that have worked in their schools and learn new methods of conflict resolution. They practice active listening—hearing feelings, not just words, so as to reach students' problems and needs before they cause trouble.

Last May and June a disturbing amount of school violence and vandalism was reported in New Jersey, and when the habit of reporting is well established, the monthly totals may rise. But things are plainly going to get better in the state. The teachers association at all levels, state agencies, local police, and many other citizens will see to that. □



HOW EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS FIGHT VIOLENCE: PORTLAND, OREGON

The night custodian at Portland's newest high school talked about his job while sweeping trash off the floor: "Every evening I come into this school and I don't know *what* I'm gonna find. These crazy kids ain't got no respect for this school."

In the cafeteria of the same school that night, the Portland (Oregon) Association of Teachers (PAT) was training teachers to improve their discipline skills. Their aim: to help stop the student violence and vandalism that cost each of the city's 350,000 citizens almost $1 per year.

The teachers were learning to organize written records of their students' behavior. They were studying the district's discipline policies. And they were devising standard ways to report violations of those policies.

The workshop was part of PAT's program to reduce school violence, vandalism, and learning disruption.

Portland's teachers have helped reduce vandalism expenditures in some schools by 30 percent in the past two years.

In 1977, the Association received almost $2,000 from NEA's School Violence Grants Program (administered by NEA Teacher Rights).

By offering four $125 awards for the best building-level projects in the district and $25 prizes to all entries, PAT created an incentive for action by teachers, students, administrators, and community groups.

At Whitaker-Columbia Middle School, students surveyed staff and students on their attitudes toward vandalism; made and displayed photographs of examples of vandalism on their campus; held classroom discussions; and developed assembly programs, posters, and announcements in the school's daily bulletin. Students carried out a "secret witness" program with rewards and fines.

At Ainsworth School, student candidates made speeches and presentations to an assembly that selected one of them

"The public seems surprised that teachers have to accept violence as part of their job description," says PAT President Barbara Donin. "We had zero awareness. We have had to change attitudes from the individual school building level up." The teachers at some Portland schools have seen a 30 percent reduction in vandalism losses since their campaign against school violence and vandalism began three years ago.

Right, Portland's Association teachers train together for better classroom discipline. PAT nearly struck to get a districtwide discipline procedure when negotiating their last contract. A teacher can remove a disruptive student from a class and can grieve an administrator's action if the teacher is unhappy with the handling of an incident.

to be the school Crime Stopper. The winner served on the student council, chaired an antivandalism committee, and gave reports over the school's public address system. The school's antiviolence committee prepared an antivandalism information packet to be given to all students during the first week of school.

The results of one survey taken of students by middle school students showed the top three reasons for vandalism: just for kicks, for revenge against school and teachers, and because of personal problems, in that order.

"We've seen tires slashed, eggs tossed, and car locks filled with glue," says PAT President Barbara Donin. "But now each building in our district has felt the impact of our antivandalism program. Even schools that didn't win awards have been helped."

Every building in the district except one has had a decrease in costs caused by violence, reports Donin. The exception reported an increase of a couple of hundred dollars.

Another factor in Portland's improved school environment is a discipline clause that PAT negotiated into its most recent contract with the school board. A teacher can remove a disruptive student from the classroom and arrange a conference with the student's parents and the principal. In addition, teachers will be reimbursed for losses caused by attack or vandalism.

A teacher can grieve an administrative action if the administrator's handling of an incident is considered unsatisfactory.

Donin says, "Violence, vandalism, and classroom disruption don't happen just in big Eastern ghettos. While we Oregonians were busy marveling at our tall trees, our kids were breaking school windows."

"The bottom line," she points out, "is that we've gotten together and made a difference." □

HOW EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS FIGHT VIOLENCE: HAWAII

"I love my job," says Mike Ishihara, a teacher at Pearl City High School in Honolulu. "And I don't want to be forced into doing something else for a living because of stress or fear."

The schools of balmy Hawaii have not been a teacher's paradise. One large intermediate school has an entire wall of boarded-up broken windows—at least 20 of them. A student was beaten to death in a high school. A parent assaulted a teacher. On different occasions, students have assaulted three teachers in one school. One of the teachers suffered a maimed hand.

So for two years, Mike Ishihara and a corps of Association teachers from around the state have acted to stop violence, vandalism, and discipline problems in Hawaii's schools.

And they haven't tried to solve the problem alone. Not only the Hawaii State Teachers Association (HSTA), but the Hawaii Department of Education, the state law enforcement administration, community groups, students, politicians, and the media—all have taken part in the program entitled "Hawaii Schools That Achieve."

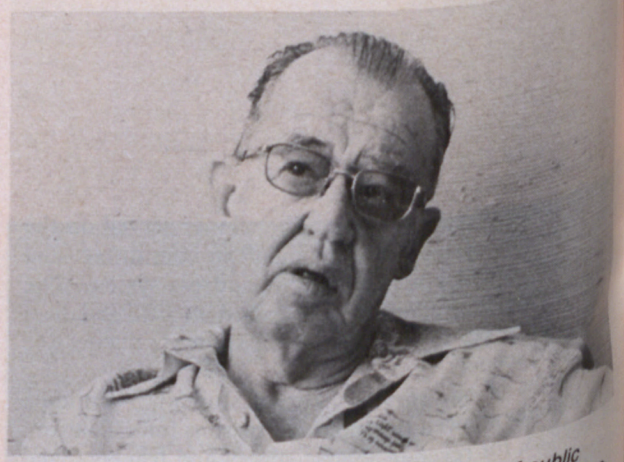
HSTA collected $15,000 to start the program in 1976. Sources included NEA's School Violence Grants Program (administered by NEA Teacher Rights), federal Law Enforcement Assistance Administration funds, U.S. Office of Education grants, and state association money.

In a program cosponsored by a number of state and national agencies, HSTA has sent representatives for training at Awareness House in Oakland, California. Located at Mills College, Awareness House is a training and resource center sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education.

Participating in the program are teachers, counselors, administrators, and parents. The trainees develop communications and process skills. They explore social and cultural issues, learn problem-solving techniques, and practice ways to develop coalitions or teams.

"We thought they were going to give us lots of program ideas," says Noreen Horita, a teacher at Pearl City High School, "but they gave us interpersonal relationship skills instead—and they work.

"We had had an unhappy, uncooperative, unwilling atmosphere at our school," she says. "Those of us who went



Charles Clark, Hawaii's state superintendent of public schools, and partner in the HSTA project to stop violence and vandalism, says, "Despite a lot of hard bargaining, we are tackling these problems together."

Teachers Mike Ishihara (left) and Noreen Horita (reading) attended a two-week training program at Mills College in 1978. Since then, they've built a team of faculty, students, and administrators who have changed the attitude at Pearl City High School from apathetic to active. "We all give and get more support," says Ishihara.

for training discovered that to change the attitude we had to become more encouraging and open-minded."

Her school began a teacher-student version of a big brother/big sister program. They used the school's physical education and health education curriculum to discourage smoking. The principal allowed students to paint and spruce up bathrooms to create a feeling of ownership. A student grievance program was instituted to help eliminate inconsistencies in the enforcement of rules. The school staff also holds picnics and bowling nights and has organized a volleyball team.

"Teachers have become more willing to get involved at work," says Horita. "We communicate better. There are fewer misunderstandings and rumors. Students have noticed that teachers have more of a school spirit."

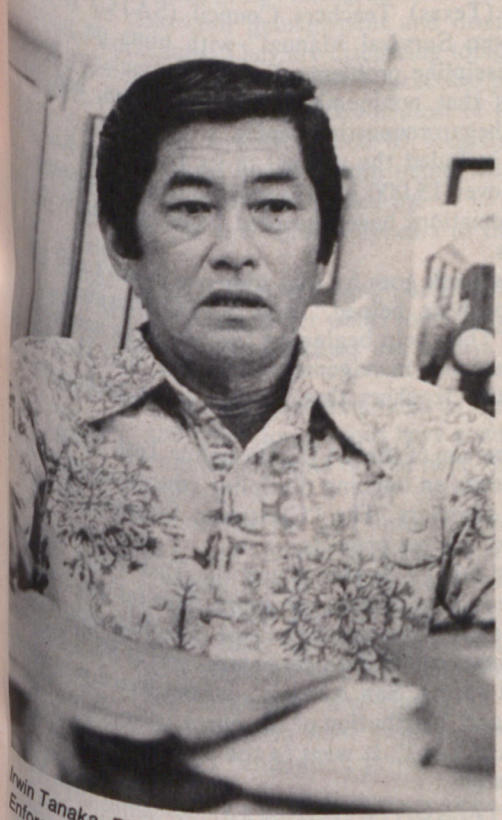
School spirit, which seemed corny a while back, is even catching on with students.

"You'll always have a few knuckle-heads who dump trash in the schoolyard," says Horita, "but things are better. I'm not afraid to go to school."

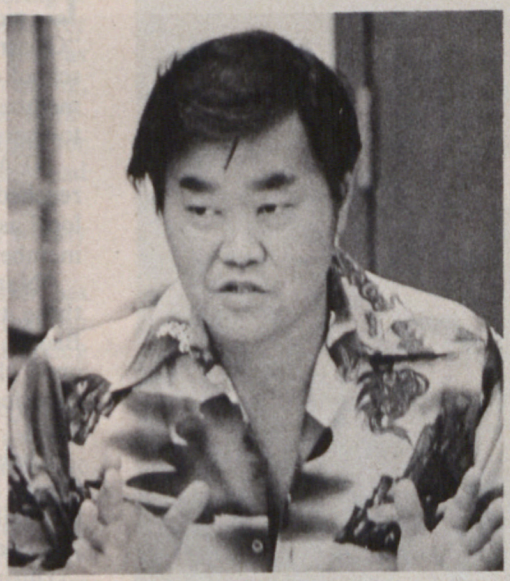
According to Ray Sodetani of HSTA, the incidence of disruptive behavior reported in several targeted schools has decreased by 64 percent.

Each year more people have been trained, enthusiasm grows, interest in the project spreads, and improvement shows.

As one participant says, "We are tackling professional problems together." □



Irwin Tanaka, Director of the state's Law Enforcement Assistance Administration agency, supports the HSTA program with funding and training assistance. "In Hawaii, there are no truant officers, and cops don't automatically pick up kids off the streets. The schools believe counselors can help. But there are so few counselors, and some elementary schools don't even have counseling programs. In schools that have counselors, too often the principal makes them attendance and discipline officers. It's hard to grab the bull by the horns and do something as HSTA has."



Ray Sodetani spent a year on leave from HSTA's UniServ staff to arrange the funding, training, and implementation of the antiviolence and vandalism programs throughout the state.

Ed Fedak, a teacher, just received the legal papers that allow him to head a new, nonprofit foundation with HSTA as its chief sponsor. The teacher-run foundation will secure grants to carry on the antiviolence and antivandalism programs the HSTA initiated for the state's school community.

HOW EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS FIGHT VIOLENCE:

SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS

Delores Blanar, president of the San Antonio Teachers Council, says the association's discipline-awareness program is her pet project. "Not a week goes by that someone doesn't call and say those tips have helped."

Last summer, the Discipline Task Force of the San Antonio (Texas) Teachers Council (SATC) prepared a "Classroom Survival Manual" with hints on preventing school discipline problems. It was so popular with SATC members that nonmembers, administrators, and out-of-towners began requesting copies.

NEA included the manual in its Discipline Kit, which reached over 15,000 local leaders across the country, and local associations have reprinted it for thousands of other members.

"Not a week goes by that someone doesn't call and say those tips have helped," says SATC President Delores Blaner. "They help beginning teachers who haven't developed classroom management skills yet, and they remind experienced teachers that these are the techniques that work."

Chairperson of the SATC Discipline Task Force Charles Hanus heads an ongoing discipline education program for Council members. The "Classroom Survival Manual" is just one of his pet projects.

During fall 1978, Hanus and the Task Force devised a checklist to help parents recognize their influence on their children's attitudes toward school. Teachers distributed it in shopping malls and grocery stores and at PTA meetings. The next spring, San Antonio's school board paid for the printing and distribution of the checklist—"What Kind of Parent Are You?" It went to the parents of every student in the system.

In fall 1979, SATC received a $3,600 grant from NEA's School Violence Grants Program—and the Discipline Task Force further expanded its program.

SATC sent a new brochure entitled "Teach All the Children" to parents before schools held open houses. It provided them a checklist to use in evaluating the school's program.

SATC also initiated a parent volunteer aide program for the school district.

The Discipline Task Force sent teachers a newsletter, "Discipline Update." One issue described discipline methods; another, news of the state legislature's Disruptive Students Bill. A third included a checklist —a "discipline barometer" that helps a teacher sense potential problem days (similar to a biorhythm chart).

SATC is using much of its NEA grant money to bring in 10 experts on classroom management and discipline for after-school workshops. They are discussing topics such as time management, assertive discipline, practical parenting, and teacher rights. The attendance for most of the workshops so far has been between 50 and 75. Registration for the first workshop—one on classroom management—had to be limited after 325 teachers signed up.

A regular discipline tips column appears in the weekly SATC newsletter.

Says Blanar, "This is the best thing our association has ever done. The classroom teacher wants something that can help him or her directly. Teachers are always thanking us."

SATC's program has not gone unnoticed by the community. Local radio and television stations have given air time for public service announcements on the need to improve classroom environments.

Every Thursday morning, the *San Antonio Express* runs "It's the Kids That Count" on the front page. SATC sponsors the guest column, which builds positive attitudes toward learning. "Hopefully families will try the family outings, regular library visits, and word games at home that the columns describe, and some of the resulting enthusiasm will spill over to the classroom," says Hanus.

"Both parents and teachers want some help with their children," says Blanar, "and we're giving them practical ideas and suggestions."

"One indication of our success with teachers," she continues, "is a steady increase in SATC membership over the last couple of years." □

Charles Hanus writes discipline tips for SATC's weekly newsletter, and he chairs the association's Discipline Task Force. He says there are five things a teacher should do to be an effective disciplinarian: 1. Be firm. 2. Be fair. 3. Be friendly. 4. Be consistent. 5. Be prepared. "They're almost clichés," he says, "but they work."

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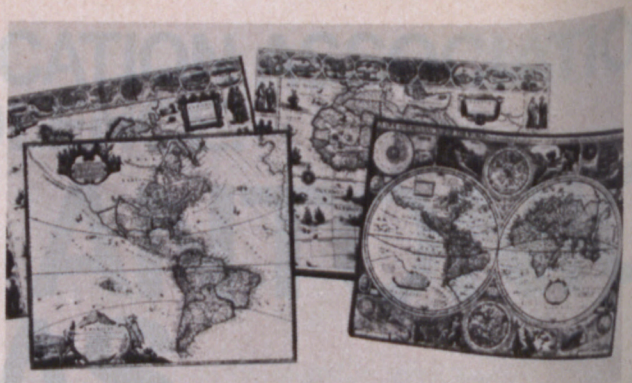

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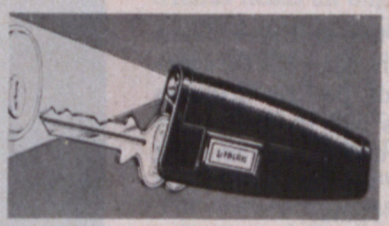

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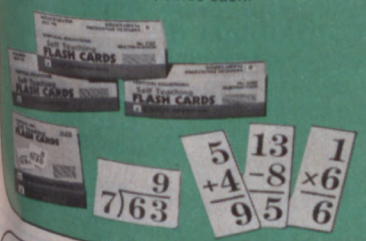

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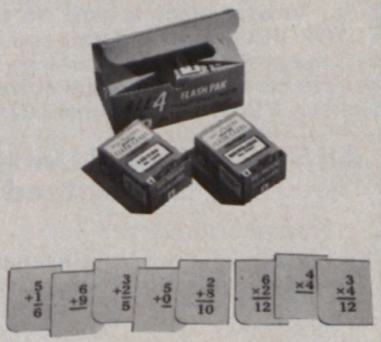

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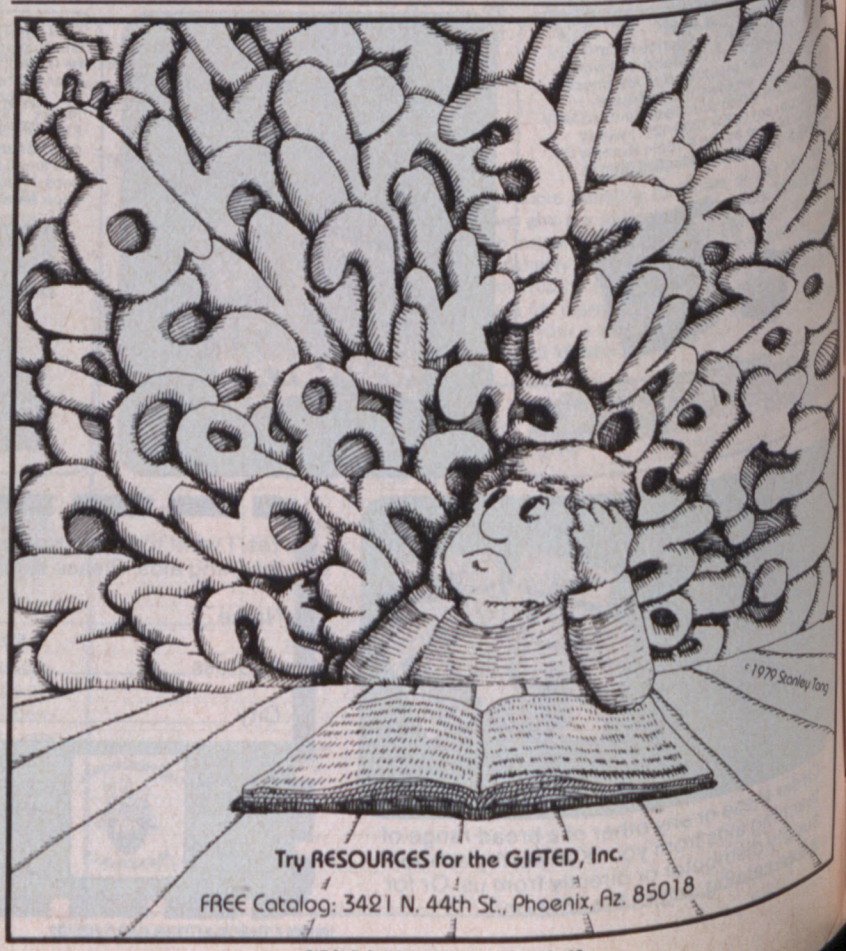

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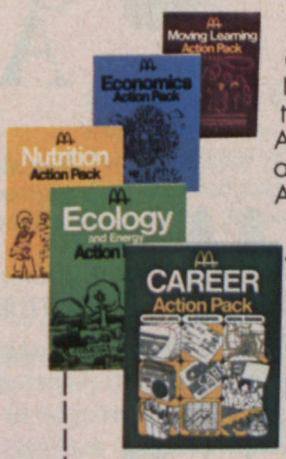

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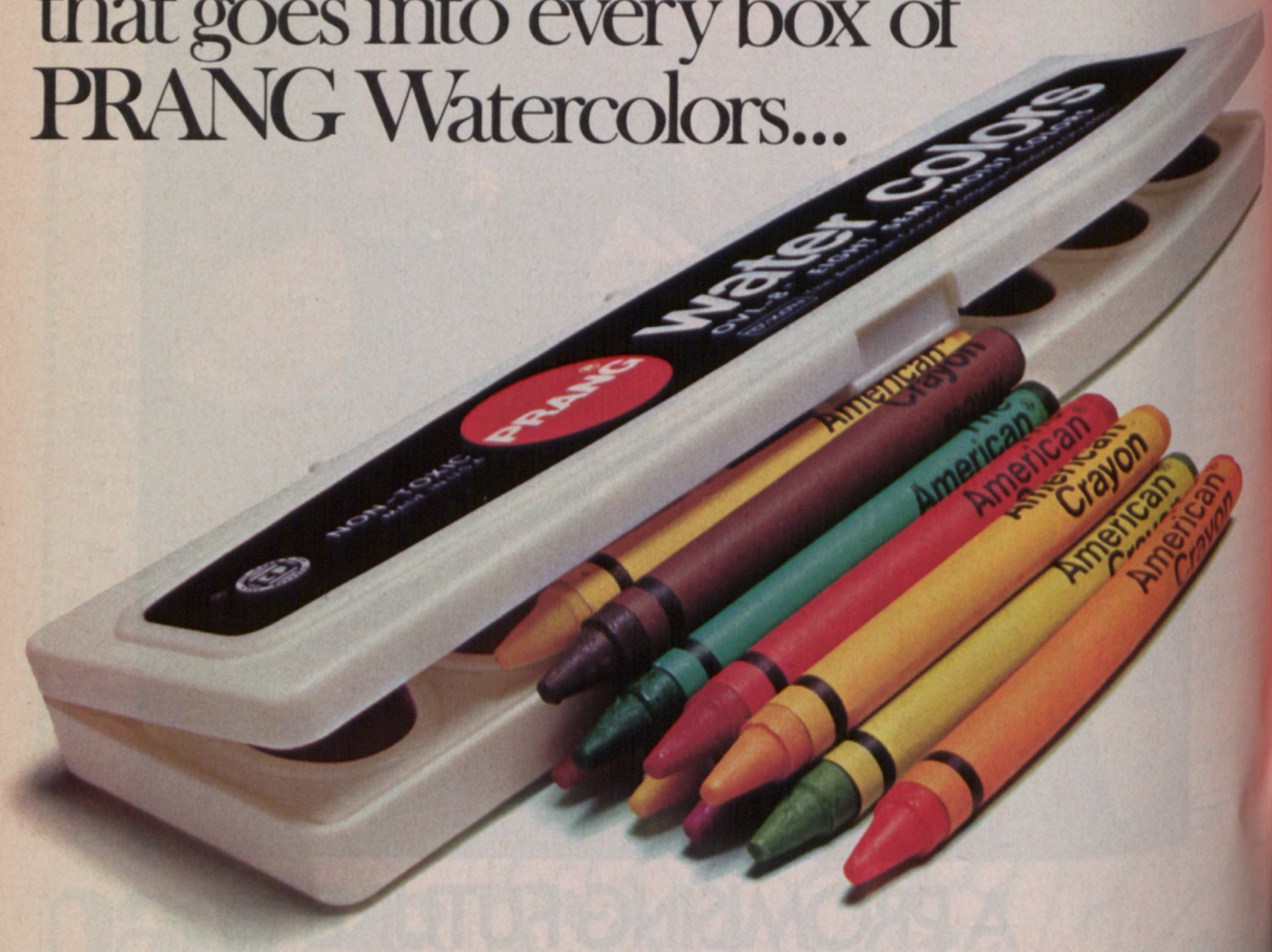

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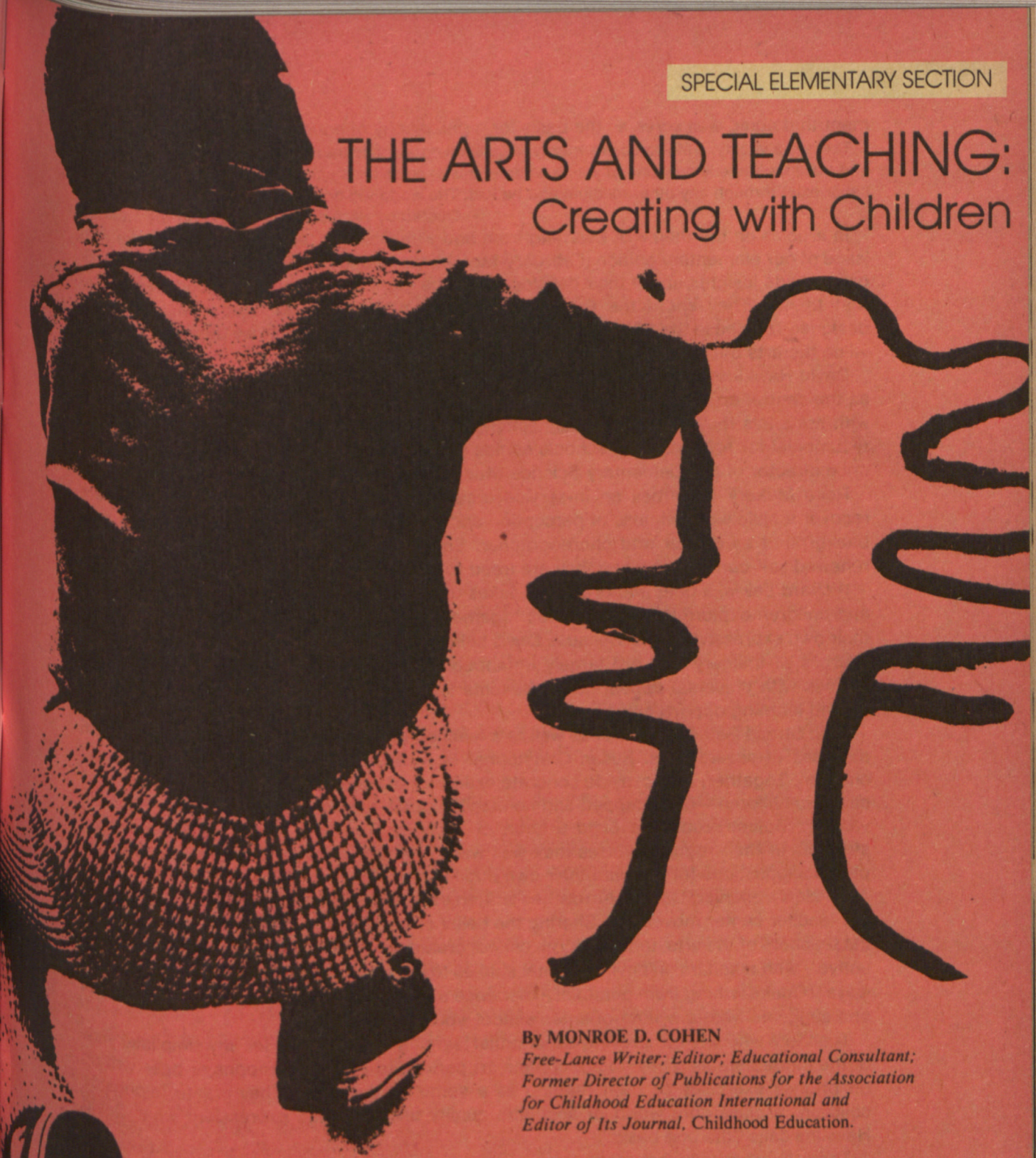
THE ARTS AND TEACHING: Creating with Children



By MONROE D. COHEN
Free-Lance Writer; Editor; Educational Consultant; Former Director of Publications for the Association for Childhood Education International and Editor of Its Journal, Childhood Education.

"I say what I feel—with form."

The words are those of Harold Rugg, who spent about 40 years studying what he termed an autobiography of the creative act.

"I say"—discovering and expressing the personal meaning of ideas.

"What I feel"—joining affect to cognitive learning.

"With form"—accepting the rigorous self-discipline needed for accomplishment in any of the arts.

Rugg set forth his artist's credo to the thousands who took his Education and Creative America classes during his long tenure at Teachers College, Columbia University. At the same time, his former colleague and friend Hughes Mearns was spreading similar ideas in the Department of Creative Education at New York University.

Both Rugg and Mearns saw restorative, catalytic forces in the arts and urged their teacher-learners to participate in the arts as actively as possible.

Dancer Martha Graham, herself a master teacher, has expressed *her* credo in a state-

ment that could well serve as the basis for a philosophy of education through art:

> There is a vitality, a life-force, an energy, a quickening which is translated through you into action, and because there is only one of you in all time, this expression is unique. And if you block it, it will never exist through any other medium and be lost. The world will not have it.
>
> —Quoted by Harold Taylor in *Art and the Intellect.*

In articles on the theme of Learning from and with Children, several authors in the first issue of our elementary edition (February-March) spoke of how children's expressive work can provide insights about their development. The contributors to this second issue echo that theme. They share the Rugg-Mearns-Graham vision of an educational program designed to release the talents of individuals. The school programs they describe not only value the arts but also sponsor artistic activity.

David Hawkins helps us set sights, "enlarging the aesthetic" so as to see teaching itself as the central art. He calls for regarding classrooms as studio-workshops amply stocked with materials that invite cross-connections in learning. Appropriately, this impassioned testimonial for arts-centered schools comes from a philosopher of science (Hawkins was once director of the Elementary Science Study in Newton, Massachusetts).

Rose Mukerji describes an in-service creative arts workshop, which helps teachers recover a childlike freshness of perception and expression. Mukerji speaks from her own background as dancer and choreographer. She explains how teachers can experience renewed self-confidence when they are freed to appreciate their talents with enthusiasm.

Richard Lewis, a poet and dramatist, takes us with him into classrooms where teachers and children explore words and ideas together, deepening their sensibilities and finding their own expressive forms. Because Lewis believes that all persons "have within them rich sources of imagery that are largely untapped," he approaches the curriculum through themes with universal appeal. Ideas become integrated as teachers find many ways to extend learning opportunities.

Ruth Straus Gainer, a painter as well as a teacher and a writer, has much experience with the uses of several arts. Susan Christopher is a sensitive teacher of hearing-impaired children. Together, they provide concrete examples of ways in which aesthetic awareness can help children—handicapped and nonhandicapped—bring together understandings in various subject areas and build a habit of curiosity. Teachers who have handicapped students in their regular classes may well want to adapt some of Gainer's and Christopher's suggestions for use with their own pupils.

An alert observer, Casey Murrow has written extensively about classroom practices and the teacher center movement. Sharing the belief of Natalie Cole, one of the world's greatest teachers of the arts, that "children cannot create out of a vacuum," he has also worked actively with teachers on environmental studies to develop a vital curriculum. He describes ways to make writing from personal experience a central element in the life of every school and suggests what a writing-oriented school would be like.

Teachers who want to provide experiential learning will not settle for any simplistic view of the fundamentals. They do not confine art periods to Friday afternoons or base writing on phoney exercises or treat reading as a series of dull drills. They create, alongside children, a classroom world of aesthetic quality and aesthetic expression: what David Hawkins calls "the one basic."

They say what they feel—with form. □

Suggested Reading

Cohen, Elaine Pear, and Gainer, Ruth Straus. *Art: Another Language for Learning.* New York: Citation Press, 1976.

Eisner, Elliot W. "The Three Curricula that All Schools Teach." *The Educational Imagination.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1979. pp. 74-92.

Mearns, Hughes. *Creative Power: The Education of Youth in the Creative Arts.* New York: Dover, 1958.

Rugg, Harold. *Imagination.* (Foreword by Kenneth D. Benne.) New York: Harper and Row, 1963. (Out of print.)

Taylor, Harold. *Art and the Intellect.* National Committee on Art Education, Museum of Modern Art. New York: Doubleday, 1960. (Out of print.)

ART AND CONSEQUENCES:

Enlarging the Aesthetic

Workshops in the arts and architecture are characteristically live and inviting places. Full of diverse materials and of works in progress, they provide a model for classrooms where children learn with initiative and discipline.

One such place which my wife and I, teachers both, will not forget was at Makerere University in Uganda. The place was in the Sculpture Department, full of students' unfinished work. We sensed there the liberation of the ancient African tradition of stylized wood carving into new modes expressing the new life of Africa in clay and bronze, wood and stone. The vigor of the work reminded us of Mexican art in the days of Rivera, Orozco, and Siqueiros.

Another place, vivid in another way, was in a small English college of education. In that laboratory, or atelier, we came to understand how the English put into practice their belief that all primary school teachers should be competent practitioners of the arts. Its storerooms were full of gorgeous simple materials: colored cards and papers, excellent tempera paints and expensive brushes, balsa wood and pine, clay, fabrics and yarns. We wanted to settle in and get to work.

As we visited English and Welsh primary schools, our impression of the competence of teachers increased. Looking not at art studios but at regular classrooms, we found many that resembled artists' workshops. They were well-stocked with materials of all kinds, full of the evidence of work in progress, and decorated with work recently finished: children's murals, calligraphy, illustrated reports of scientific inquiries, plans of a nearby castle.

By DAVID HAWKINS
Professor of Philosophy, University of Colorado, Boulder, and Director, Mountain View Center for Environmental Education.

If we lay down wholly separate curriculums
for reading and writing, math and science,
social studies and art, we cannot thereafter
by any magic bring them fruitfully back together.

We saw paintings by preschool and five- to seven-year-old pupils that would rival the best done by older children in the United States. We read much children's writing that was fresh and uncoerced. We saw collections of materials from home and field—snail shells and fossils, minerals and plants, drawings of microscopic wildlife—that were arrayed with a certain dramatic flair and frequently a sense for color and form. Although these collections were seldom mainly the teacher's handiwork, many of them implied a teacher's personal investment in fresh subject matter in every part of the curriculum.

Excellent classrooms fit an aesthetic genre all their own. No adult fakery is in them. The adult presence shows indirectly—the visitor senses a teacher's knowledge here of color and form, there of poetry, and there of horticulture or geology. In style and content, the work belongs to the children, and it invites the visitor to enter. Any visitor is likely to remain unnoticed who doesn't know how to join in some science or math activity in progress or who doesn't bring along some tempting materials.

We did not see excellent classrooms everywhere we went in England and Wales, but we saw many more there than we have ever seen in the United States. In even the least impressive of these English and Welsh classrooms, children were not bored. They were engaged in diverse enterprises, moving about and talking freely, involved in honest subject matter.

In one class of five- to seven-year-olds we visited, the children were putting "I'll huff and I'll puff and I'll blow your house down" to the architectural test with houses built of straw, wood, and brick. In a class of older children, students were engaged in careful study of the ecology of a hedgerow (north side and south), classifying, counting, and preparing a final exhibit. One must discount any definition of aesthetic education that does not honor and embrace such involvements and such expressions.

At one point during our visit to English and Welsh schools, a puritan U.S. conscience made me ask after such things as math and reading scores. One head teacher replied to my question by saying "We think that if a child has a good day, every day, that's the best we can do for that child's future." She spoke of the enjoyment of learning, not just of what we dismiss as fun and games.

No one seemed overly concerned about scores on tests. Devotion to such matters was not absent, but it was low-key. Skill was valued, not mechanized. Good storybooks and books of reference, always available and abundantly used, had squeezed out primers. Routine computation was subordinated to the mathematical investigations integral to practical activities or to concrete math materials in which the English curriculum developers have pioneered. Workbooks were as scarce as primers, but the three R's were abundantly in evidence.

After seeing that, I became sharply conscious of our U.S. puritanism, badly misnamed as scientific assessment. I have still not recovered from the reverse cultural shock I experienced on returning home. Although our puritanism has mainly lost its religious sanction, it continues to flourish, settled like arthritis in the joints of our public school systems. Afraid of being criticized for letting children out of that narrow path we call the curriculum, we herd them along through those educational passages that someone outside the classroom has persuaded us to believe in. The ideological aim is no longer to root out innate wickedness as preparation for life after death. "Original sin" has been replaced by a variety of quasi-medical labels—dyslexia, hyperactivity. Human judgment is replaced by paper things called "instruments," and an instructional package will give both the diagnosis and the prescription.

The Proper Use of Books

In contrast to the best classrooms of England and their rarer counterparts in our own country, the typical U.S. classroom is dominated by one material only: paper. Now, I do not wish to bad-mouth paper. It is a marvelous material not only for tempera painting and calligraphy but also for chromatography and for making many kinds of model airplanes and constructing miniature houses. Good books are printed on paper, as are good illustrations. But in many of our schools, these good materials are forbidden.

What *is* the proper use of books? In this country, we write and publish many good general-interest books, storybooks, and books for reference. But few educators, and even fewer school publishers, seem to imagine they might replace our dull little readers and textbooks.

The main purpose of schools is to bring children and subject matter together, each respected for the education that can result when the union is fruitful. But people who decide such things conceive that subject matter is literally inside the book or package. They talk about students' *going through* junior high school algebra or American history, *covering* a subject rather than uncovering it. The notion that the subject matter exists outside of the book and can be investigated independently of it seems alien to their settled belief. And so we come to the final paradox: Millions of children are surrounded daily by piles of printed paper, and a large proportion of them are doomed thereby to a meager literacy. Something is wrong, and it's not just *Sesame Street*.

Children don't first learn to read and only then learn to value reading. On the contrary, when they come genuinely to value what may be found in books, they mostly teach themselves the mechanical part, the decoding skills.

John Paull, now a headmaster in the Midlands of England, worked for a year in Mountain View Center for Environmental Education. When he visited a class, he always had something interesting in his pocket—a magnet, a lens, a fossil. Once he had a long conversation with a fifth grade boy about a fossil he had brought, and he left behind a children's book on fossils.

Three weeks later, when John returned, the same boy greeted him warmly, "What you got on you, Mr Paull?" John produced another fossil, this time a nice bivalve he had brought from England, one unknown in our local rocks. The boy examined it carefully and correctly identified it as a brachiopod. When John asked for the source of this knowledge, the boy said he had read about it in the fossil book. The teacher was incredulous—"But he has not yet learned to read!"

Books and children can meet fruitfully when both are open to the world, where the subject matter lies.

Teaching as Art

Classrooms that lack vitality take two forms. Though apparently at opposite poles, they elicit a common diagnosis: boredom. One sort is quiet but dominated by mindless routine. The other is frenetic, lacking in governance. Both create the problems they seek to cure: inattention, lack of discipline, lack of engagement in learning.

To maintain an exciting classroom is an art. Part of it is the provisioning and constant reprovisioning of a material environment that gives children access to subject matter and helps absorb them in it more and more deeply. But this art also requires teachers to be absorbed in subject matter and in children and to find ways to work with children around the interests that teachers and children can come to share.

Borrowing from the vocabulary of performing arts, we can speak of the teacher's choreography or orchestration in directing the class's rhythms and changes of pace, its occasional joint improvisations.

For all of this, my wife, Frances Hawkins[1], has used the term *ambience*. For ambience the teacher is centrally responsible. But she also underlines another element of teaching, seldom considered essential to the performing arts: the liberation, steadying, and eventual reliance on children's curiosity. In addition, the teacher joins in children's curiosity about the world, adding to it an adult curiosity about each child.

Improvisation is dominant; but there is planning—for the year, the day, the minute. Some elements of the yearly planning are prescribed. These are what the school system and the community understand by *curriculum*. But these elements imply only certain results, however achieved.

At a more concrete level, school authorities typically offer, and sometimes seemingly also prescribe, the daily sequence in the form of what we now call "instructional packages." These purport to relieve teachers of all but peripheral planning responsibilities. They can be deadly and frequently are. They represent, however, what much of the educational world now understands by "curriculum development."

Classrooms with the air of workshops, and the art that makes them possible, require sustenance of an entirely different kind. They need good books for reading, not workbooks. They need three-dimensional materials and collections of ideas about the uses of such materials. They need visitors with skill and knowledge who come to observe, appreciate, join in, discuss, suggest. To use another term from the performing arts, they need teachers with a large and growing *repertoire*. Wise use of this repertoire requires a wide understanding of elementary subject matter to match the diversity of paths along which children learn. Even more, these classrooms need an accomplished teacher who learns outside the classroom, pursuing weaving, math, geology, or the history of a community. Only through that kind of involvement in learning can teachers fully invest the subject matter of the classroom with romance and value.

Cross-Connections

Unfortunately, we have little good literature on the teaching art. All of it is written by those rare skilled practitioners who are also skilled writers. One was Plato, the great dramatist of ideas. He is known to be the philosopher's philosopher, the classicist's classical author, but all too seldom the teacher's teacher.[2] Another skilled teacher and writer was Tolstoy: Many of the peasant children on his estate became writers and artists.[3] Not to compare with these great ones of the past, several contemporaries nevertheless belong on the list: Elwyn Richardson, author of *In the Early World*;[4] Frances Hawkins, author of *The Logic of Action*;[5] and Michael Armstrong, whose article "Writers, Artists, and Philosophers: Thought and Action in a Primary School Classroom"[6] has been expanded and will soon be published as a book. A fourth is Herbert Kohl, whose first book, *Thirty-Six Children*,[7] tells the story of a young teacher's discovery of some of his children's talents.

These very diverse books have many common themes. One is a shared sense of the integrity of disciplines and of their interconnectedness. This is what we ought to mean by *integration* of the curriculum.

People in education talk a great deal about the integration of knowledge, but the only way to achieve it is to avoid disintegration in the first place. If we lay down wholly separate curriculums for reading and writing, math and science, social studies and art, we cannot thereafter by any magic bring them fruitfully back together. We do not get from one branch to another in the tree of knowledge by going back down to the branch point; the journey is too long.

Fortunately, the tree of knowledge is full of cross-connections, what biologists call *anastomoses*, like the veining of a leaf or the neural network of the brain. We can get to any part from any other part by many pathways.

Here is a kind of contradiction. Young children most of the time—and all of us some of the time—learn best by these cross-connections, moving fluently from one focus of interest to another. Children are spinning webs of

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In one class we visited, the children were putting "I'll huff and I'll puff and I'll blow your house down" to the architectural test.

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their own which have designs that no one else can ever fully anticipate. Sensitive teachers may find that an intended lesson in geometry, with compass and straight-edge, turns easily and more fruitfully into one in decorative design, the geometry only implicit. Do we follow this indication or insist on the straight path? Discipline made absolute degenerates into coloring between lines, painting by number, doing geometry by rote.

Those who always insist on the straight path are likely to lose the last glimmer of children's understanding on the way to their goal. Those who

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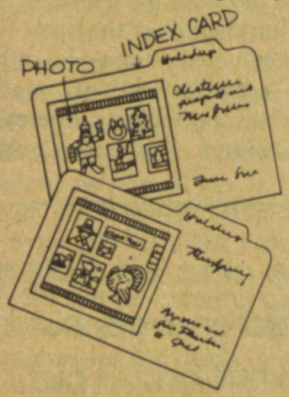

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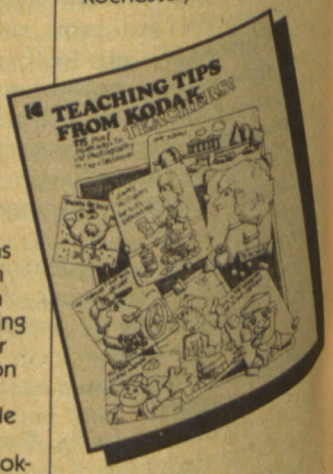

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sometimes follow other paths may find that their lesson is realized more fruitfully in some later context, when what had been only implicitly learned emerges more fully. Slow can be fast; good teaching, an art of indirection.

The One Basic

Discipline has a place—but never too early. We cannot impose it blindly; children must accept it as a means to some goal they have helped to define and deepen. Then we must temporarily block the side branches and insist upon the straight course. This disciplined phase of teaching and learning can powerfully facilitate a more anastomotic kind of learning later on. At its best, it has an aesthetic of its own, that of order, elegance, and organizing power. When Vincent Van Gogh struggled successfully to get the white of grubby peasant caps in a dim interior, he was on the same plane as Jules Henri Poincaré (famous French mathematician, 1854-1912) who found just the equation that would summarize his findings.

To concentrate is to isolate. To isolate fruitfully, however, is only to define better what will then become one node in a larger and freer network. What we too often call discipline, actually the dominance of rule and routine, does not merely block the side branches but cuts them off.

This then is the one *basic:* Any concern about the education of children—or adults—should be a concern about matters of aesthetic quality and aesthetic expression. In the good classrooms I mentioned earlier, we can directly experience the ways teachers elicit significant expression from their students. We also can find how that expression, central in the class's attention sometimes and always peripherally influential, supports and extends the children's involvement in subject matter and their commitment to excellence.

Spontaneity and Discipline

I have tried to make the circle big enough to contain some ideas. Now I return to the starting point. This quotation from John Dewey (in *Art as Experience*)[8] argues both for making the arts central in the curriculum and for preventing the disintegration of the curriculum:

> Works of art often present to us an air of spontaneity, a lyric quality, as if they were the unpremeditated song of a bird. But man, whether fortunately or unfortunately, is not a bird. His most spontaneous outbursts, if expressive, are not overflows of momentary internal pressures. The spontaneous in art is a complete absorption in subject matter that is fresh, the freshness of which holds and sustains emotion. Staleness of matter and obtrusion of calculation are the two enemies of spontaneity of expression. Reflection, even long and arduous reflection, may have been concerned in the generation of material. But an expression will, nevertheless, manifest spontaneity if that matter has been vitally taken into a present experience. The inevitable self-movement of a poem or drama is compatible with any amount of prior labor provided the results of that labor emerge in complete fusion with an emotion that is fresh. □

This article was adapted from an address to a conference on Curriculum and Instruction in the Arts and Aesthetic Education, held in June 1979 at the Aspen Institute for Humanistic Studies in Aspen, Colorado. The sponsor was CEMREL, Inc., a St. Louis-based educational laboratory.

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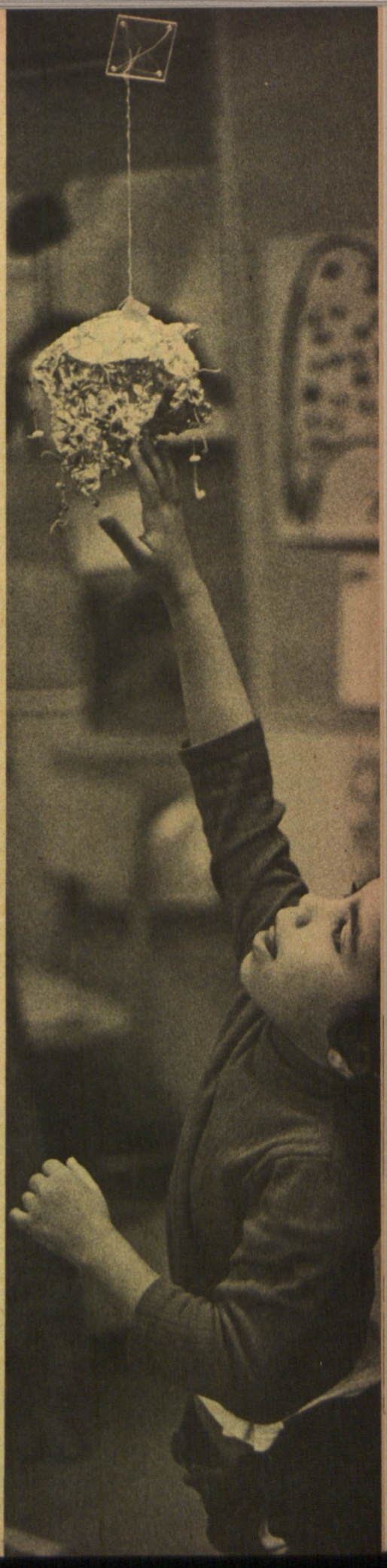
[8] John Dewey. *Art as Experience.* New York: Putnam, 1958. I believe Dewey's unacknowledged inspiration for this work was a classic he (quite typically) criticized, Immanuel Kant's *Critique of Judgment.* This great philosopher finds in "the free play of the imagination and the understanding" a powerful argument for the unifying role of the aesthetic in all human experience, in knowledge and conduct.



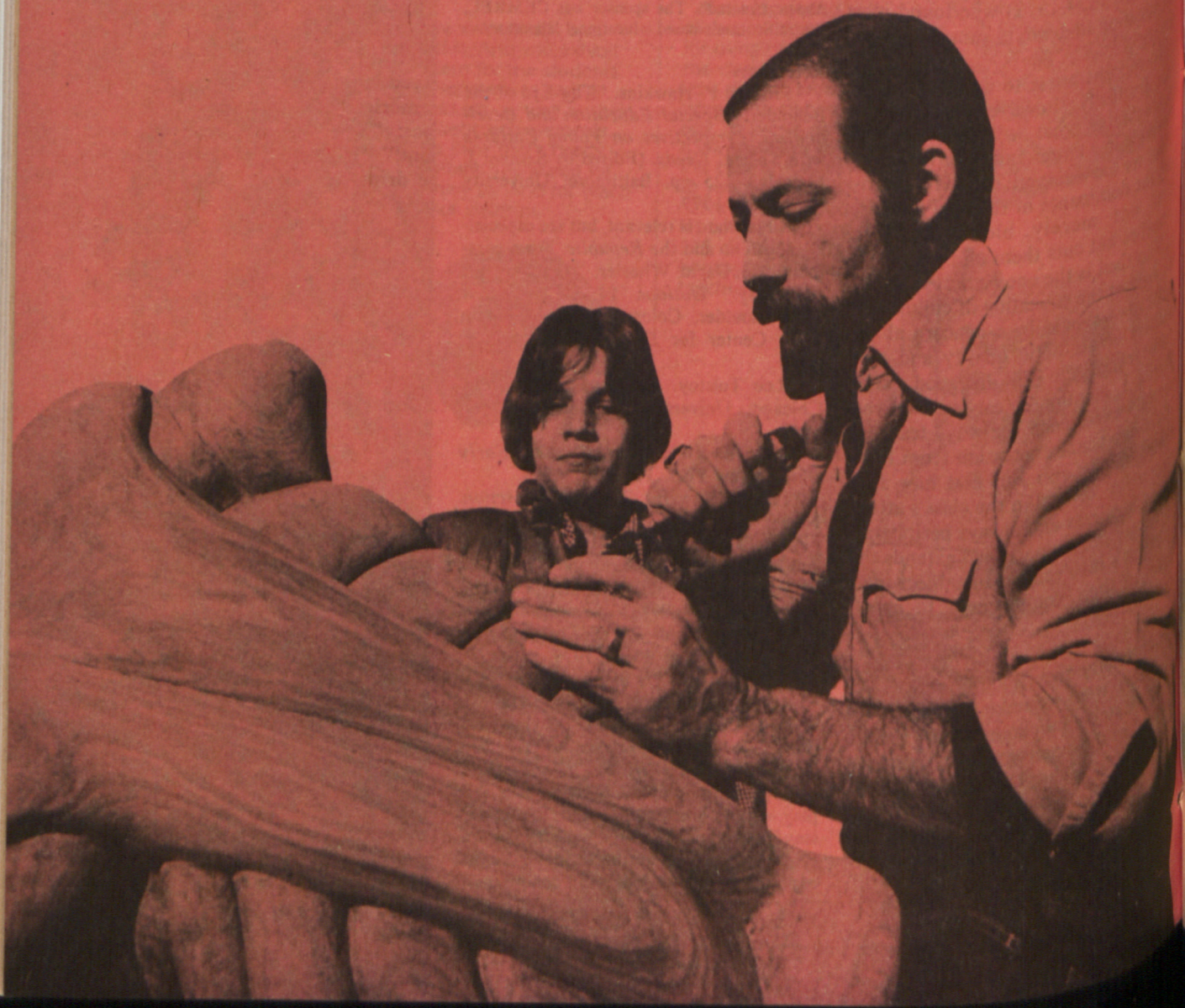
GROWING TOGETHER THROUGH THE ARTS

Damn the empty sky
And the stars at night.
Damn the way stones lie
And the dirt on the street.
Damn the sun's heat—
Because my heart is torn.
Damn what smells so sweet
'Cause my love's gone.
My pain's as bad as that!

Damn the spring
With flowers and lovers
Holding—kissing in the park.
Damn the whole damn thing!!
'Cause my love is worn out.
My pain's as bad as that.
Damn the moon and the weather,
Earth and waters,
Damn the dead and living together.
And damn the one word "love"
With all its empty promises.
My pain's as bad as that.

—Betty Nelson

By ROSE MUKERJI
Professor of Education,
Brooklyn College of the City
University of New York.



A thick moment of breathless silence, a burst of applause: the spontaneous reaction of teachers in a creative arts workshop to their colleague's gift of expression and her courage in sharing it. Was this the same young teacher who for weeks had been so quiet? Where was the gentle shyness now, as she showed the chalk drawing through which she expressed the same theme as in her poem? The background of romantic pastels was slashed through with bold strokes of purple and electric pink revealing her pain.

The incident was potent, but it was not unique. The Early Childhood Division of Brooklyn College designed its Creative Arts Workshops to release the power within each teacher for making a personal statement through integrated expressions in several forms of art. The Workshops are held as a regular course for teachers and prospective teachers enrolled in the college.

What does a teacher's personal creativity have to do with teaching? Isn't it enough that we know how children grow, that we select appropriate curriculum content, and that we foster learning? All these are essential—but they are not enough. Teaching is an art as well as a science, and like any other art form, teaching has a craft supporting it.

Martha Graham created a brilliant technique to undergird her incomparable artistic choreography. The genius of Picasso as artist was grounded in craft.

So it is with our finest teachers. They are constantly firming up their technique while enriching their artistry in teaching. How? Each one charts his or her own course. Many find the creative arts a rewarding path leading to renewal in the art of teaching. Why is this so?

When we look into ourselves to seek out what we want to express aesthetically, we open ourselves with special sensitivity and alertness. We experience ourselves more fully. As artist-teachers, we then share this highly personal self with our students to the level of their capacity to understand it. They then experience us as unique persons who matter in their lives.

The Creative Arts Workshops give some clues about how we can reawaken or revitalize the taproots of our inner selves as sensitive persons. Two of these clues are sharing a growing trust and building from strength.

Sharing a Growing Trust

How did the Creative Arts Workshops consciously build an atmosphere of trust? The task was not difficult, nor did it take many weeks, but the efforts were explicit and concentrated. Our ground rules required that participants comment about one another's work positively and specifically.

By sharing a growing trust and building from strengths, teachers in a Creative Arts Workshop tap their inner resources so that they can work more effectively with children.

In the early sessions, participants frequently said about a piece of work, "I like that." "That one's really good." "That's beautiful." Positive comments? Yes. But not specific ones. Such superficial judgments also conveyed the potentially insidious idea that the purpose of expressing oneself through the arts is to please someone else. Someone in authority? The teacher, perhaps?

Gradually, however, the teachers in the Workshops replaced their facile, vague comments with more perceptive ones:

On a creative dramatization with puppets: "When the little boy lay very still for a long moment before tilting his head up toward his father, I wanted to cry. It was so real! So many conflicting feelings—despair, apprehension, and longing—were there in that little puppet because of the timing of his movement."

On a painting: "Those few tiny dots of white give the painting a sense of vibrancy—a certain lift. At least that's how I see it."

As the teachers in the Workshops grew in ability to respond in ways that were positive and specific, a general sense of trust among all the participants grew. Just as we got to know the colleague who wrote the poem about her pain, so we became acquainted with others in the workshops when their growing trust of the group freed them to express themselves with fewer reservations.

One teacher approached the task of painting reluctantly. Like many children, she asked, "What do you want us to paint?" and we had to convince her that the choice was hers to make. At the end of the work period, she put up her painting along with the others. Although this teacher was usually realistic and literal in her work, this painting of hers was quite different. In a line across the top of the paper were thick dabs of color from every jar of paint. From this line, streams of color cascaded down the paper. The brilliance of the varied colors and the simplicity of design made the painting arresting. But not until she told us the title of her picture did we appreciate the full drama of her personal statement in paint. It was called *Revolt Against Authority*.

We sensed then how her painting served to exorcise many childhood memories, some teachers' admonitions: "Watch out! You're dripping paint!" "It's a nice picture except for the drips." Finally, in adulthood, she made her powerful statement of feelings harbored since childhood and released a new-found freedom to paint.

Our learning as adults is no different from that of children. In order to learn, they, like us, must feel psychologically safe, trusting and trusted. They will then be freer to give us the clues that can help us, as teachers, better meet their needs and nourish their interests.

Building from Strength

Each of us is likely to feel a bit more competent in and therefore more comfortable with one of the many forms of aesthetic expression than we do with others. Each of us probably has had some experience in or at least some inclination toward a particular mode of expression. In the Workshops, the teachers would express a theme or an idea in one art form—two- and three-dimensional art, creative writing, dramatic improvisation, improvisation in movement and dance and music—as a springboard for carrying it through in another.

The first task in each of the arts was to guarantee some measure of success and thus to encourage the teachers to express themselves in that medium without fear of criticism.

In the visual arts, for example, those who are blocked by their inability to represent images realistically according to their own standards can be freed by a problem that requires a fresh, abstract approach. One such assignment: Choose a word, preferably an adjective, that describes some aspect of yourself. It must start with the same letter as the first one in your name. Then, with colored chalk, draw an abstract image of that quality.

Angry Adolpho can serve as one example. "What color or colors would you use to draw anger?" we asked the group. The first chorus of answers was the expected: red. But Adolpho said with some irritation, "No, not for me.

My anger is deep purple splashed with blue!" With that small comment, he cracked a widely held stereotype about the meaning of color. What shapes or strokes might express anger? "Jagged ones like lightning." "Short strokes going in every direction, bumping into each other." "A small tight spot pushing into a whirlpool of concentric circles."

What about Inquisitive Ivy? "Tentacles reaching out in every direction from a central point." "A million short lines weaving a maze of directions but always touching." "Something like a game of dominoes—always connected from one to the other."

The participants took inspiration from their own characteristic feelings—strong, personal, and different from each other. The results were unique self-portraits with confidence and good humor all around.

Another opening assignment from the Workshops: Paint a fantastic creature, one that's never been seen on earth or in outer space and that exists only in your imagination. When you're finished, name your creature in a way that suggests its uniqueness.

To set off sparks of thinking, we asked these questions: Can it see? With what? Can it move? How?

In each art form, the participants began with simple, encouraging activities analogous to these. The group members began to recognize comfort zones for themselves and for various colleagues. They were encouraged to use these areas of comfort and strength as springboards from which to venture into arts in which they felt less secure and less competent.

Arletta, who expressed herself most touchingly in poetry, was cajoled to orchestrate her poem through choral speaking. She then went on to use instruments as sound accompaniment. She added creative movement. Her final group presentation, which integrated several arts, had grown organically from the seed of her original poem.

When Wen-Hsing had a choice, he inevitably gravitated to the art materials. He was most reluctant to take part in drama. In group dramatic projects, he would offer to construct a set or paint a backdrop. He referred to himself laughingly as "a backstage type, but not a stage-door Johnny."

For an integrated arts project, Wen-Hsing's group decided on a puppet show. He enthusiastically plunged into the task of designing a backdrop and making two of the puppets. As he developed the distinctive character of each of these puppets, he began to "hear" the sound effects that would fit the characters, and he produced those effects to the delight of his coworkers. Then he supplied the dialogue for one of his puppet characters. Finally, acceding to the urging of his colleagues, he played the part of that puppet with style. His breakthrough was possible because he was leading from his strength in art.

Recapturing the Zest for Teaching

There is much to be said for teachers' learning through their own participation in the arts. There is something special to be said about their participating in workshops where many arts are integrated. To explore new artistic waters by attending a dance studio, a sculpture class, an acting workshop—any activity that specializes in one art form—may be difficult for some teachers. The competitive atmosphere in these settings may prove inhibiting. But when teachers attend integrated arts workshops, they will expect, and quite rightly, that their colleagues will not be equally competent in all the arts. Some will be more at ease in writing; some, in music; and others, in painting. It is likely that any teacher will more comfortably fit into such a diversified group made up of colleagues who are neophytes in some of the arts and experienced people in others. In such a setting, a teacher can more readily find the courage to try new things by using his or her strengths as a springboard into new forms of creative expression.

Creative arts workshops have much to offer those who teach. They offer a felicitous way to continue learning and to become sensitive again to the drama of learning—the problems, the dissonances and their resolutions, the sense of relief, the joy, the satisfaction. Perhaps they can revive an enthusiasm for one of the arts that once beckoned but that was bypassed in favor of exploring a different branch of the road.

Creative arts workshops can help many teachers to recapture the zest for teaching and learning, inoculating them against burnout. One teacher summarized her experience by saying, "Sure, I knew it before, but in a different way. I read what Erikson said about trust being the cornerstone for healthy growth. I read what Rogers said about the need for psychological safety if one is to be free to create. But now I really know it, way down deep inside, in the marrow of my bones."

Scientific? No. Accurate? Not really. Meaningful? Yes—and the broadest meaning is that creative arts workshops bring fresh strength to *people* who also teach. □

THE FOREST OF THE MIND:

Nurturing Imagination in Children and Teacher

As the children come into the room in a Manhattan elementary school, they see in the middle of the floor some large boxes that look like cages. Seating themselves in a large circle, they wait for something to happen. Rumor has it that a live snake ("maybe even a cobra!") is inside one of the boxes. No one really knows for sure, though, so the children speculate: "What happens if he gets out?" "Do you think they fed him before he got here?" "What will I do if he looks at me?"

The talking stops when the man who brought the boxes begins to speak. Slowly, and with great gentleness, he explains that he has brought some live amphibians and reptiles from the zoo, as part of a yearlong study of Creatures of the World. "Yes, they *are* inside the boxes, and yes, they *are* frightened." Everyone must be quiet, so that when the animals are taken from the cages they will be able to respond to the children.

Like an enchanter, or a kindly Noah introducing the animals in his ark, he takes one animal at a time from its cage—first a small tree frog and then a large bullfrog, a lizard, an iguana, a little snake, and a big snake. With much care, he explains how each one lives and what its habits are. Holding some of the animals in his hands, he moves from child to child, letting them touch the mottled and wizened skin of the frog and the smooth, liquid body of the snake. The room has an atmosphere of high seriousness as the children take in every moment of their encounter with this often inaccessible world of wild creatures.

But one box still hasn't been opened. All eyes are fixed on the man from the zoo as he cautiously unhinges the locks. With utmost bravery he puts his hand inside and takes out, alive and breathing, a crocodile! The special man from the zoo cradles the creature in his arms. Moving from child to child, he lets each one touch the back of this quiet and enigmatic being with the gentleness that only human hands can show.

After all of the children have had a chance to touch the crocodile, he places it on the floor in the middle of the room, where it sits, its eyes staring at nothing in particular. Then, without warning, it turns its head to the right, opens its vast mouth—and yawns.

> All persons, young or old, have within them rich sources of imagery that are largely untapped in the rush to be educated.

Amazed and delighted, the children giggle and begin to talk among themselves, caught in that stunning instant in which they are made aware of a likeness between themselves and a crocodile.

Crossing Boundaries of Knowledge

The schoolroom where the crocodile appeared had been assigned to the Touchstone Center, a nonprofit organization established in 1969. I am the director. The Center's aim is to develop the imagination and creativity of children and teachers. We conduct an extensive program of consultations, seminars, and workshops for both children and adults, and programs on arts in schools.

What the children were learning from the crocodile cannot be found in the standard curriculum of schools. Rather, their inquiries crossed many artificial boundaries of knowledge. By observing and touching this creature, they began to discover the relationship that exists between themselves and all living beings. Now these children and their teachers could begin to find the deeper meanings of their experience.

Such deepening of experience is the goal of the Center's endeavors to tap the imaginative capacity of both children and adults. Our staff use people's observations to show them how every person can use his or her expressive vocabulary to interpret the world.

The yawn of the crocodile can mark the wedding of the factual and the imaginative. It prepares the class to read or hear legends and poetry from many cultures about amphibians and reptiles. For example, after the visit from the zoo animals, the children and their teacher in that Manhattan elementary school read the following:

A Mayan myth from Mexico

The whole world rested on a crocodile of the east, a crocodile of the west, a crocodile of the north, and a crocodile of the south. They all floated on a vast lake.

A Zulu poem from Africa

He who bathes among the crocodiles,
The crocodiles will not attack him,
They care for his bubbles.

Both children and teachers also created poems, myths, art, and dances from their personal encounters with their fear, wonder, and understanding of crocodiles. They were drawing inspiration both from their own experience and from the perceptions of others before them.

Some Basic Understandings

This kind of exploration is part of the process that the staff of the Touchstone Center has used in developing a *thematic curriculum*—a curriculum in which particular themes and images are sustained over a period of a year. We are interested in working this way because of our ideas about some funda-

By RICHARD LEWIS
Director, Touchstone Center for Children, New York City.

mental problems in the teaching of the arts and about the relationship of the arts to other areas of learning.

We believe, for one thing, that the isolation of the arts as a subject only echoes our society's isolation of expression from other ways of knowing. We also feel that too often the teaching of separate disciplines in the arts prevents children from letting different forms of expression emerge from one another. By nature, children work in an integrated manner: dancing evolves into a story, a story into painting, painting into a poem. We believe, finally, that all persons, young or old, have within them rich sources of imagery that are largely untapped in the rush to be educated.

Dealing with Dinosaurs

A number of years ago, a group of kindergarten teachers approached our Center staff with the question, "What do we do? Our children have dinosaur fever."

We began with the usual prescription for lowering dinosaur fever: taking the children to the museum, to see dinosaur bones.

There is nothing like a good view of the immensity of a dinosaur skeleton, however, to heat even the most lethargic imagination into feverish activity.

What we did next was devise a way for dinosaurs to become an ongoing part of life in these kindergarten classrooms. We engaged children directly in creating imagery that they were interested in. We then allowed that imagery to become the material for a long-term investigation of a world that for most of us is a shadowy, mysterious, and dangerous part of our evolutionary history.

The point, then, was not to avoid the fever, but to steady it so that it would sustain the children in using images that interested them to widen the scope of both their perception and their imagining.

The solution that the Center and the kindergarten teachers conceived was to build a large dinosaur from more than 100 wooden pieces, which the children could take apart. We put it on roller skates, and the children proudly rolled it from room to room.

The dinosaur became a presence in each room. All kinds of ceremonies, events, rituals, conversations, story and poetry writing linked to it became part of the school day.

Five years later, children who remembered that time still often asked us, "How is the dinosaur today?"

The point here is, of course, that children's learning depends on the depth and extent to which we engage children in developing the images and themes that are most satisfying to them. This idea is by no means new. Artists in any medium are spurred into creation by a desire to work through a particular image and theme. They investigate the many dimensions of an idea until they have fashioned a personal statement—and ultimately, one hopes, communicated it.

Something that fascinated us at the Touchstone Center as we worked on our dinosaur curriculum was the degree to which children can sustain the learning process through their genius for play. When playing is made into a task to be judged quantitatively, children are apt to lose interest.

Even more significant to us was the problem of a number of kindergarten teachers who said they needed help to extend the dinosaur theme from week to week. This revelation spurred us to improve on the fragmented quality of so much curriculum.

The piecemeal approach to learning hampers teachers in extending the study of any one subject for any length of time because of the pressure to touch base with all subject matters. This situation complicates, if it does not openly contravene, children's penchant for playing until their play reaches a natural conclusion.

The intensity of children's interest when they play reveals how much they are able to extend the simplest object of play. Watch a young child playing house and note the endless details he or she attends to, from arranging cups and saucers to mimicking visiting adults. All of this is done with an astonishing sense of how one thing leads to something else. The talent for organizing learning and understanding which creates this organic progression soon becomes obsolete when children go to school and face the imposition rather than the discovery of tasks. We adults have long forgotten how to extend.

With these concerns in mind, the Center organized workshops for teachers in "dinosaurs"—not to teach them all the facts about *Tyrannosaurus rex*, but to help them extend their own interest in the prehistoric. In one workshop, which occupied a room in a preschool, a group of teachers built a prehistoric landscape of stones, moss, twigs, and soil. They populated it with clay figures of "all that we ever imagined about dinosaurs." They lit it with lights filtered by painted cheesecloth and chilled it with what they imagined were the sounds of those beasts not of our earth.

When the landscape was finished, one of the children in the school who came into the Touchstone Center room and saw it said, "I never knew teachers were so interested in dinosaurs."

Closing a Gap

How revealing this child's remark is. Perhaps unconsciously, most adults have created a gap between what children are interested in and what they think we are interested in. Partly because of this child's revelation to us, we began to work on ways to close this gap.

One of the first things we did was transform the Touchstone Center room into a place where teachers could come in their free time to concentrate on interests of their own. Teachers explored some subjects that related to their classes, but they explored others purely for their own interests. The teachers' projects ranged from a study of Eskimo culture to the designing and building of an indoor garden. Most of the 20 or so teachers who participated discovered the link between projects they initiated because they were interested in them and their ability to extend a learning theme.

The Enchanted Forest

Perhaps our most dramatic breakthrough in helping teachers learn to extend themes began in the fall of the following year. One of the teachers who had worked with came to us and said she wished to build a three-dimensional "forest" in a flower box as part of her study of Woodland Indians with her class. As we talked about this project with her and other teachers in the school, we all became excited about

constructing not a forest with dimensions of a few inches, but one that could fill the empty classroom next door to the Touchstone Center Studio. We began to envision the possibilities of entering into such a multidimensional image as "the forest": a landscape that could be truly enchanted.

Week by week over the course of a year, all of us, using all sorts of art forms, slowly built an enchanted forest. The important ingredient was that children and adults conceived and executed the forest collaboratively. Together we made a world filled with creatures, trees, caves, and streams that became the collective expression of many people moving through their individual senses of "forest."

To celebrate the existence of this unique environment in the school, children, parents, teachers, and members of the community took part in Legend Day. One day in late spring, from 9 in the morning till 9 at night, everyone was invited to walk into the forest room and contribute to it even further by writing a story or a poem or by painting or working with clay to express the experience of being inside the forest.

One of the teachers wrote the following invocation, which was put at the entrance to the forest.

"Come," it said.
And we came.
Creeping, crawling, slinking,
  squirming.
Some hesitantly,
  others more quickly . . .
Others, still, could only raise their heads
  to peak, or eyes to stare . . .
Yet we came—all of us—
Here Together Waiting.

In retrospect, what was impressive about this yearlong project was the depth of the "extending." It was as if we had brought into the life of the school an image of such vibrancy that no one, no matter what his or her skills or background in the arts, could resist interpreting it artistically. The image was open-ended and universal enough so that all, young and old, city-bred and country-bred, felt a connectiveness to it and breathed into it something of themselves.

For the next three years, the forest was a living "theme," an environment we could extend and tap as far as time and enjoyment permitted. Its magic was so effective that we could take classes of children inside and ask them, in all seriousness, to listen to the crickets or feel the water coming from the waterfall. Some children were unused to the challenge of this kind of imaginative play and cautious and suspicious of such antics. Their fear would soon fade, however, and in time, they would become the most enthusiastic of guides into this place where things, if you really believed in them, could happen.

In each corner of the forest were a large sun and moon. We spent the whole following year exploring these celestial bodies. Here, science and the expressive were intermingled: fact could become poetry, and poetry could become fact.

The Forest of Our Mind

A special moment occurred near the end of one term. An eight-year-old child, painting a picture of the moon surrounded by a dark and swirling universe, looked up at one of us and said: "If only I knew if there was an end to space! If there is, then there is an end to my imagination."

What an extraordinary conception of our possibilities. This child, while painting, had reached into the world that is himself and extended something of himself to the world outside. What more can we ask of learning than that it make this dramatic connection, this leap of faith through the unknown to the known?

With the yawn of the crocodile, a roomful of children became electric with a sense that something of themselves was personified in this brute creature. It is possible, too, to think of the exploration of dinosaurs, a forest, the sun, the moon, or creatures of the world as the means by which we are able to bring into practice our most elemental interests. Each theme becomes the metaphor through which we can learn as we all first began to learn, expressing what we want to learn through the expression of what we already know. The forest of our mind grows from the darkness of its soil to the grasping of its light. □

HELPING THE HANDICAPPED THROUG

The reservations that teachers of nonhandicapped children have about working with handicapped children are commonly noted. Less frequently acknowledged are the concerns teachers of handicapped children have about those children's entering the regular classroom.

As two such teachers, we were troubled by the prospect of sending our students to alien environments. We feared that cold curiosity and harsh comparisons would suddenly surround them, undermining their security and adjustment to school. It didn't seem fair to send young children whose lives were already difficult into unfamiliar circumstances.

"I get the feeling that teachers *resent* having deaf children placed with them," said Susan to one of our principals when the auditory department announced that 3 five-year-old deaf children were ready to be mainstreamed into the morning kindergarten for the 1977-78 school year.

"Look, Susan," the principal answered, "I respect your apprehensions—some teachers *are* worried about handling additional problems and acquiring specialized expertise, but their anxieties are genuine. You have been very supportive of your students. I think you need to extend that support to teachers who will have them in their classes. What will you do for *them*?"

We were taken aback. We hadn't considered this kind of responsibility toward other teachers, our peers. Yet the principal's logic was clear. His comment started us thinking about how to ease the situation for teachers as well as students when handicapped students are integrated into regular classrooms.

We developed two approaches, which have been successful in two different types of situations. Susan, as a teacher of the hearing impaired, has used the plan we call *reverse mainstreaming*. She used it in situations where handicapped children who spend most of their school day in special classes are sent to a regular class for short periods of time. Ruth, as a traveling interrelated-arts teacher, has used the activity we call *demonstrating ability*. She uses it when handicapped children who are placed in regular classes for most of their school day are sent to special classes for short periods of time.

Both approaches place handicapped children in positions of strength, and both rely on the arts. Additionally, both involve demonstrations for regular classroom teachers and their nonhandicapped students, demonstrations in which teachers trained to work with the handicapped teach such children.

An anecdotal record of ways the arts can serve as communications systems between handicapped and nonhandicapped children.

Reverse Mainstreaming

Handicapped children may either shine or fade from view in an integrated situation. Reverse mainstreaming can help them shine. The process may involve the following:

- An entire class of nonhandicapped children visits the handicapped children's classroom and participates in activities familiar to the handicapped children.
- A small group of nonhandicapped children visits the handicapped children's classroom on a regular basis, possibly for remedial work.
- The teacher of the handicapped children conducts lessons for the integrated classroom permitting the regular classroom teacher to observe the students' interactions with one another and their responses to different techniques of instruction.

The arts are valuable tools in reverse mainstreaming because they are communication systems that, for example, enable our deaf students to present themselves as the creative, intelligent individuals they are.

What follows is a description of how Susan used reverse mainstreaming with two groups of students.

In 1977, after three hearing-impaired children from Susan's special class began to go to a regular kindergarten class, Susan invited the kindergarten to visit her class of *six* hearing-impaired students each week. Every Wednesday, Bobby, one of the three, proudly led the kindergarten upstairs to visit his "other" room. Here, seated in a circle on the floor, holding hands, all the children silently said hello by passing a hand squeeze around the circle. One by one, each child received the energy of the group from the child on the left and passed it gently on to the one on the right.

It is helpful, when bringing deaf and hearing children together, to ask them to communicate in a nonverbal way at first. Saying hello through pantomime, handshaking, or touching elbows or hips helps the hearing-impaired children to feel as comfortable as the hearing children. It is also helpful to hold the lessons in the deaf children's room. Being in their own room adds to their comfort. Most often, deaf children are asked to go into an unfamiliar setting alone. In this reverse-mainstreaming situation, the nonhandicapped children as a group are asked to visit the unfamiliar territory.

To prepare the hearing-impaired children for their Wednesday session with the regular kindergarten class, Susan gave them the lesson—or a version of it—in advance. This enabled them to participate confidently when the so-called normal children were present.

Following are some activities the two groups of children did together.

By RUTH STRAUS GAINER
Interrelated Arts Teacher, and
SUSAN CHRISTOPHER
Teacher of the Hearing Impaired, Montgomery County (Maryland) Public Schools.

Susan's room had a large collection of animals—guinea pigs, parrots, lizards, mice, snakes, fish, an iguana, a rabbit, and turtles. On one memorable morning, the room had 17 baby lizards!

Each week, the deaf children "featured" an animal for the kindergarten class—one that the hearing children had already studied.

To begin the lesson, Susan and all the children sang:

Let's sit and talk.
Let's sit and talk.
What shall we talk about?
What shall we talk about?
Let's talk about a *parrot*![1]

Often Susan showed slides of the animals themselves and of pictures the deaf children had drawn of them. All the children moved their bodies like the animal they were studying. Two of the deaf children demonstrated yoga exercises for children that related to the animal.[2] Soon all the children followed—perhaps imitating a turtle, silently crouching, legs and arms tucked under and foreheads touching the floor. In this exercise, the slow reserved turtles listened for a drumbeat—a vibration deaf children can sense—to tell them when to raise heads and peek out of their shells.

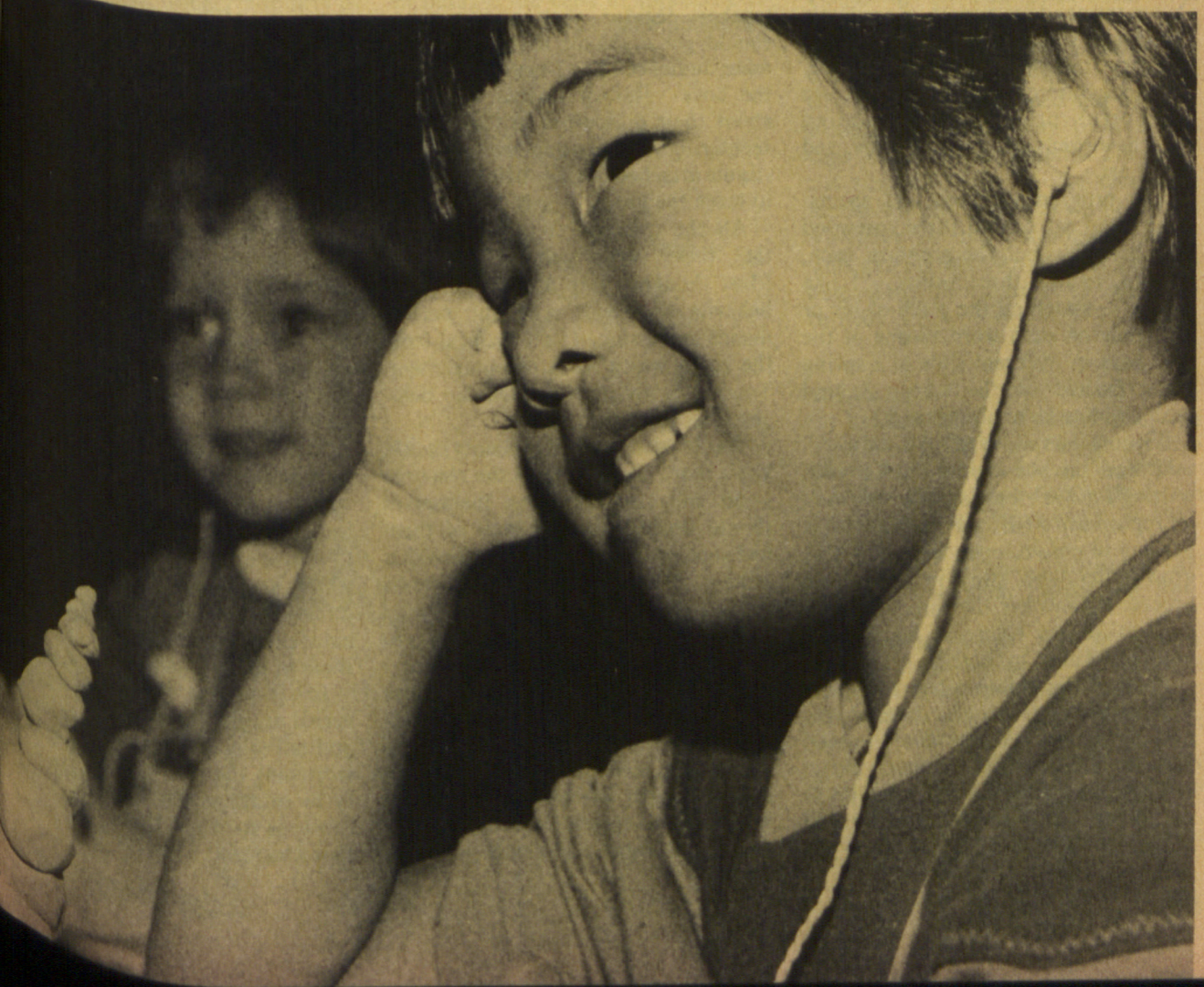
Susan's room had a miniature zoo the children made out of clay. One Wednesday, all the children listened to a tape plotting the course to finger walk through the zoo and identify Cheryl's fish, Monica's monkey, and Patrick's bird. This strengthened auditory perception in both deaf and hearing children.

On one occasion, Susan read aloud Maurice Sendak's alphabet book, *Alligators All Around*,[3] and the children created a mural of alphabet animals. Another time, she read another favorite, *Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears*.[4] Kate, Lou, and Luisa had painted watercolor interpretations of the animals in this book beforehand and presented them to their hearing friends, at the same time making the sound associated with each animal. Soon all of the children chanted:

badamin, badamin
wasawusu, wasawusu
krik, krik, krik

In 1978-79, Susan worked in another school with a different group of kindergartners. This time, she went into the regular class every day to work with the regular kindergartners and six hearing-impaired children from her special class who had been integrated into the class for part of the day.

In this setting, Susan showed that rhythmic activities, musical games, and nonverbal communication could



be incorporated into a kindergarten curriculum to benefit both deaf and hearing students in the same class.

All year, students clapped, stamped, snapped, and tapped various rhythmic patterns. They played nonpitched and pitched instruments. They put into movement the low-frequency sounds that the hearing children could hear and the deaf children could feel. The deaf children kept their voices free and natural by accompanying their movements with staccato or sustained sounds.

Both hearing and deaf students were able to read charts suggesting alternating voice pitches. Using pictures of each child as cues, we tapped or clapped a rhythmic pattern for each child's name.

During one session, Susan read *Ma nDa La*[5] to the children, and they practiced phonics, reading, speaking, auditory discrimination, and making various rhythms by reciting various combinations of the syllables. Susan played the piano, and the children echoed its rhythmic patterns on the drum.

By spring, the deaf children had shown tremendous growth in academic subjects as well as in speech, language, auditory training, and self-confidence. The deaf children were ready to create a colorful program incorporating speech, movement, music, drama, and visual art.

The program's theme was spring. Each child sat behind three rosewood tone bars. To open the program, each, in turn, recited three words—"I like spring"—matching the pitch of his or her voice on each word to one of the tone bars. A different slide of a spring scene flashed on the screen behind each child as he or she recited.

"Spring is red. Red like a tulip," said Beth as she curled into a ball, waiting for the vibration of a soft mallet repeatedly striking a cymbal. It was her cue to unfold, open her red petals, grow taller, and sway in the gentle breeze. Behind her the screen showed a beautiful red tulip she had drawn, entitled "Tulip, by Beth."

Each of the children had a color, a slide, a movement sequence, a rhythmic instrument pattern, and a speech pattern. Each created his or her part.

The class presented the program to the other kindergarten class at the school as well as to a workshop for administrators in the county; a meeting of the PTA at a school that would house deaf children the following fall; and a workshop for parents and teachers at Gallaudet College for deaf students, located in Washington, D.C. Educators, parents, aides, interpreters, administrators, and classmates watched young deaf children perform and saw children who are able, creative, and successful.

Demonstrating Ability

Many children with a range of problems are placed in regular classes and then called out for daily sessions with therapists or other special teachers. Their comings and goings are difficult for all concerned. Some children try to leave and return inconspicuously; other children make elaborate exits and entrances, while their teachers shudder at the general distraction.

Ruth had a chance to help ease these transitions for Eric and Douggie, two third graders with learning disabilities and speech problems, whose comings and goings disrupted the class.

One day she and the boys' classroom teacher decided that perhaps they should get a chance to have a legitimate audience. They began to talk to the boys' resource teacher in speech about their difficulties in leaving and reentering the classroom and about the stigma attached to their being required to leave the group.

All the children in the class knew that these two boys had problems. Most thought the problems were bad behavior and poor academic performance and assumed that removal from the room was a form of punishment. Too much mystery clouded the boys' absences from the class.

We decided that the students should know more about work in the resource room and that the boys themselves should describe it. But both of them had such severe speech disabilities that talking to the class might embarrass them.

The resource room teacher had previously asked Ruth to provide arts activities that would help the boys develop particular skills she was working on with them. These activities served both as ways for the students to form concepts without having to use words and as topics for conversation.[6] Eric and Douggie had completed these projects enthusiastically, and the speech teacher had been enthusiastic about their achievements and their diligence. We decided that the boys would present their resource room arts projects to their regular class.

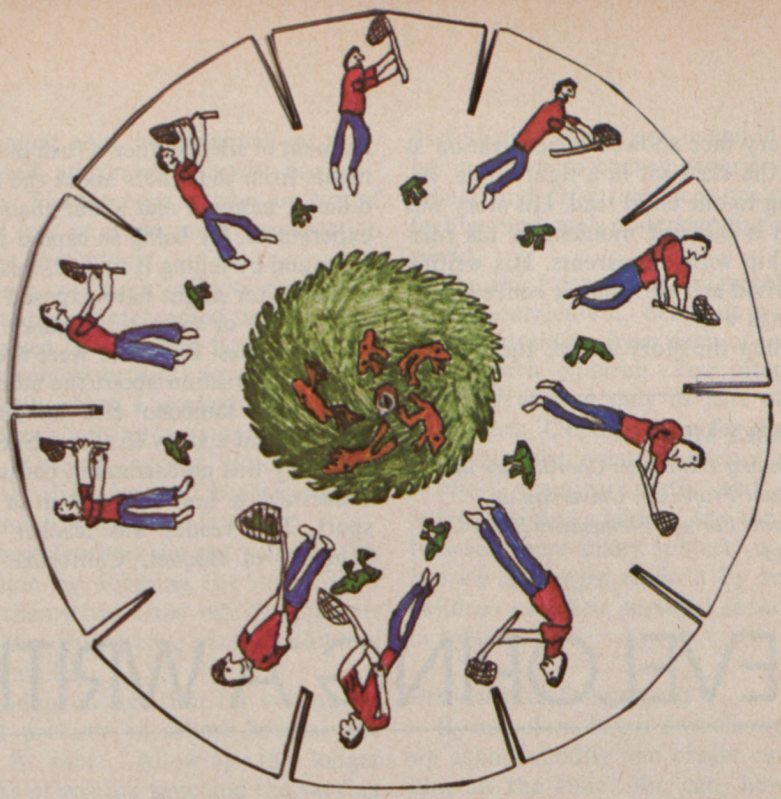
Douggie's project had been to make a series of drawings around the circumference of a cardboard circle. When a pencil was placed through the center of the circle and the disc spun in front of a mirror, the pictures appeared to move. The subject of Douggie's cartoons were his adventures as a frog catcher. On one disc, he showed himself in various stages of capturing a lively frog. On another, he showed how he caught a fly for the frog to eat (no mean feat, since the fly must remain alive to interest the frog!) and how the frog caught the fly in the classroom terrarium. On still another disc, Douggie had animated the life cycle of a frog.

These "movies" impressed the class greatly. "Show us how to do it, Douggie," some of his classmates shouted. On the spot, he did a slow-motion demonstration of his frog-catching prowess. His movements were so graceful that the class mimed them spontaneously. Lisa commented, "Douggie is like Crow Boy [the hero of a book the class liked][7], only he is Frog Man!"

Ruth and the resource room teacher promised to provide materials so Douggie could also demonstrate how he made the "movies." The two explained that such animations are really called *stroboscopes* or *phenakistoscopes* or *zoetropes*. All the third graders had difficulties with these words. Douggie wasn't the only one with problems.

Ruth and the regular classroom teacher set up a classroom art center, where, under Douggie's supervision, the students made sequential strips and then disc-animations of various ways in which people watch, catch, and care for animals. In Douggie, the class had a naturalist in the room who could assist them in many projects.

Eric's project involved visual and verbal exaggerations. He had read several tall tales and then showed that by stretching the truth or distorting reality in paintings, he could make statements as strong as those in the stories. Eric created the Incredible Dynamo,[8]

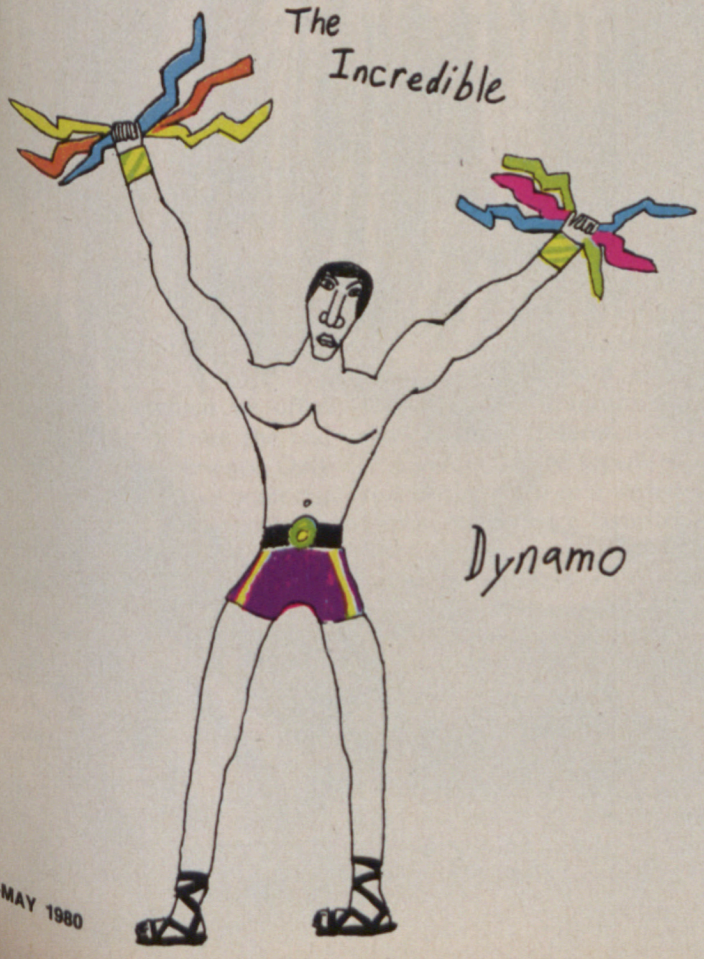


character so tall that when he was thirsty he just turned around and took a bite out of a cloud. A colorful character, he could extract colors from objects for instant personal use.

After painting a picture of Dynamo, Eric made a collage about him by cutting felt silhouettes and gluing them to burlap. When Eric unfurled this banner in class, his classmates' appreciation was audible. Dynamo's proportions dwarfed normal people, trees, and buildings. In his fists were lightning bolts of bright colors.

Eric took charge of a classroom center where students made fabric collages of their favorite folktale characters. He regularly sorted the bits and pieces of fabric to keep the center neat. He assured students that distortion of reality in both color and form could strengthen their compositions.

In general, then, the process of demonstrating ability requires interaction among arts, resource, and classroom teachers. The resource teacher obtains ideas and materials from the arts teacher and allots time for their use. The resource teacher also acts as an advocate for the child in arranging the classroom demonstration. If he or she cannot be present at the demonstration itself, he or she discusses it ahead of time with the regular classroom teacher. The classroom teacher encourages the class to appreciate the handicapped child's accomplishment and encourages the child to share his or her skill, usually with a small group of classmates at a learning center in the classroom.



Focusing on Achievements, Not Handicaps

Both reverse mainstreaming and demonstrating ability shift the attention of both handicapped and nonhandicapped students away from handicaps and onto achievements. They ease the responsibilities of the classroom teacher by dividing them with teachers who have specific, specialized training. This sharing has proved to be pleasurable and informative to all concerned. □

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[2] Carr, Rachel. *Be a Frog, a Bird, or a Tree*. New York: Harper and Row, 1977. Paper.

[3] Sendak, Maurice. *Alligators All Around*. New York: Harper and Row, 1962.

[4] Aardema, Verna. *Why Mosquitoes Buzz in People's Ears. A West African Tale*. New York: Dial Press, 1975.

[5] Adoff, Arnold. *Ma nDa La*. New York: Harper and Row, 1971.

[6] Cohen, Elaine Pear, and Gainer, Ruth Straus. *Art: Another Language for Learning*. New York: Citation Press, 1976.

[7] Yashima, Taro. *Crow Boy*. New York: Penguin Press, 1976.

Every face showed concentration as the class sat in a tight circle, listening to one child read. His story was about a difficult moment in his relationship with his parents. His writing was vivid and personal; it conveyed his feelings well.

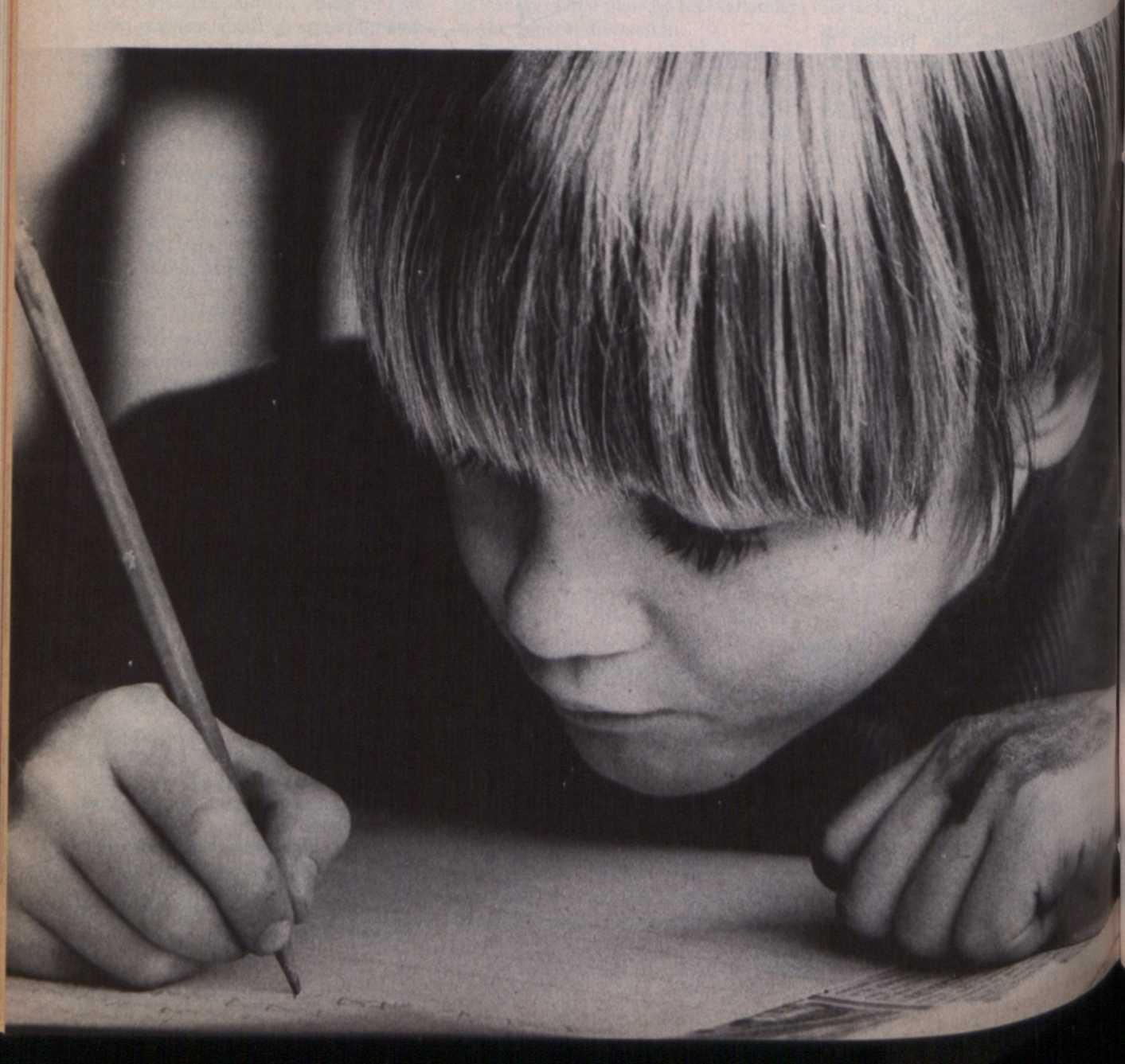
When the story ended, there was a moment of silence, then a rush of comments from the others about the boy's difficult moment and about their own experiences. By being so candid in his story and by telling it so well, this fifth grade writer might have exposed himself to silly or sarcastic remarks from his classmates. But there were none.

As conversation about the story tapered off, someone else announced that she had a story to share. She said the story was embarrassing because it concerned a first attempt at a new sport. This reader was teacher Kate Jamentz of Soquel, California. Her story revealed part of her life that would normally be unknown to her students: a first attempt at roller skating. Through narrative and dialogue, the class saw her, along with two friends, struggling to master a skill, tripping at first, then gaining confidence.

Both writers, student and teacher, had written personal stories from direct experience. For settings, they had reached beyond the school. For subject matter, they had used issues in their own lives that would not normally be part of the school day.

By CASEY MURROW
Continuing Education Coordinator and Assistant Professor, University of Vermont; Former Elementary School Teacher.

DEVELOPING A WRITING-ORIENTE



They had done what most writers—amateur or professional, eight years old or 75 years old—do. They write from their personal experience of the world around them, whether the form their writing takes is a short story, poem, essay, or newspaper or magazine article. Some write about an experience they have already had. Others seek out an experience in order to write about it, for example, visiting a wholesale market in a large city in order to write about the people, foods, smells, and noises of the place.

Student writers must do the same

SCHOOL

thing. As a teacher in Rochester, New York, noted, "The student has to write about what he cares about, in the context of his own life. To find relevance in the act, the writer must associate with his own time, his own environment, and the concerns with which he can identify." Her point is important for all of us to remember as we work with students on their writing, or as we try writing ourselves.

Fantasy, Too!

Personal experience is valuable for more than descriptive and narrative writing. It forms part of all the writing that we do. For example, a description of a cloud in an imaginative poem requires observation and knowledge even if the poem tells the story of a myth or allegory.

Likewise, fantasy, which we often consider takes us away from the real world, has its roots in experience. Only by starting from some known point can the child or adult author fantasize an event or a world that is known only in his or her own mind.

Three Constraints

Experience in the real world remains the child's motivation for writing. Whether the story is joyful or sad, it is always powerful if we, as teachers, allow the writing to flow without too many outside constraints.

Constraints that make good writing difficult are not new to our schools. Although none of them will go away by itself, all can be dealt with imaginatively. The three major ones are lack of time, lack of space, and fragmentation of the curriculum.

Lack of time affects both the amount of uninterrupted time students are given to write and how often they are given opportunity to write. Teachers with whom I worked on issues of children's writing last summer in Portland, Oregon, agreed almost unanimously that they had been expecting too much writing too fast.

These teachers did not come to this decision by debating the issue. They had themselves tried out assignments that they might have given to children or to adults.

Finding enough time for writing is a great problem in school because the day is short. Allowing for longer blocks of writing time and the varying speeds of each student is no easy task. However, the teachers in Portland felt that they had to find ways, in their separate schools, to manage this. I think that we all have to.

In some schools, teachers can deal more easily with the second constraint, lack of space. Trying to write while sitting at one's own desk in a classroom is not always easy. If the classroom permits otherwise healthy noise and activity, the writer may suffer considerably.

Many teachers have solved the problem by creating a writing center in their rooms. This area can be equipped with a table and chair and a few useful tools and books. Likely materials are pens and pencils; glue for mounting illustrations; a dictionary or personal wordbooks; folders of story starters; photographs; and, most important, the work of many children.

A center can be separated from the rest of the room in a variety of ways. Fabric dividers are favorites of mine. They dampen sound and create pleasant visual patterns without too much distraction.

A tape recorder can make the center the place for students to tape their oral stories. It is an appropriate place for the teacher to take dictation from students with major writing difficulties.

Expression is at least as important as the mechanics of writing. Teachers with a writing center in their room have a fine opportunity to show children that writing is not an end in itself but a chance to convey experiences to others and to strengthen one's own feelings and one's understanding of the world.

The third constraint, fragmentation of the curriculum, demands a great deal of attention from each of us who works with children. Too often, we think of writing only as part of language arts. Opportunities for writing, however, exist in natural science, social studies, practical math, and other fields. Helping children see the links between these many subjects is hard, but we can begin to do it by helping children use their personal experience in writing.

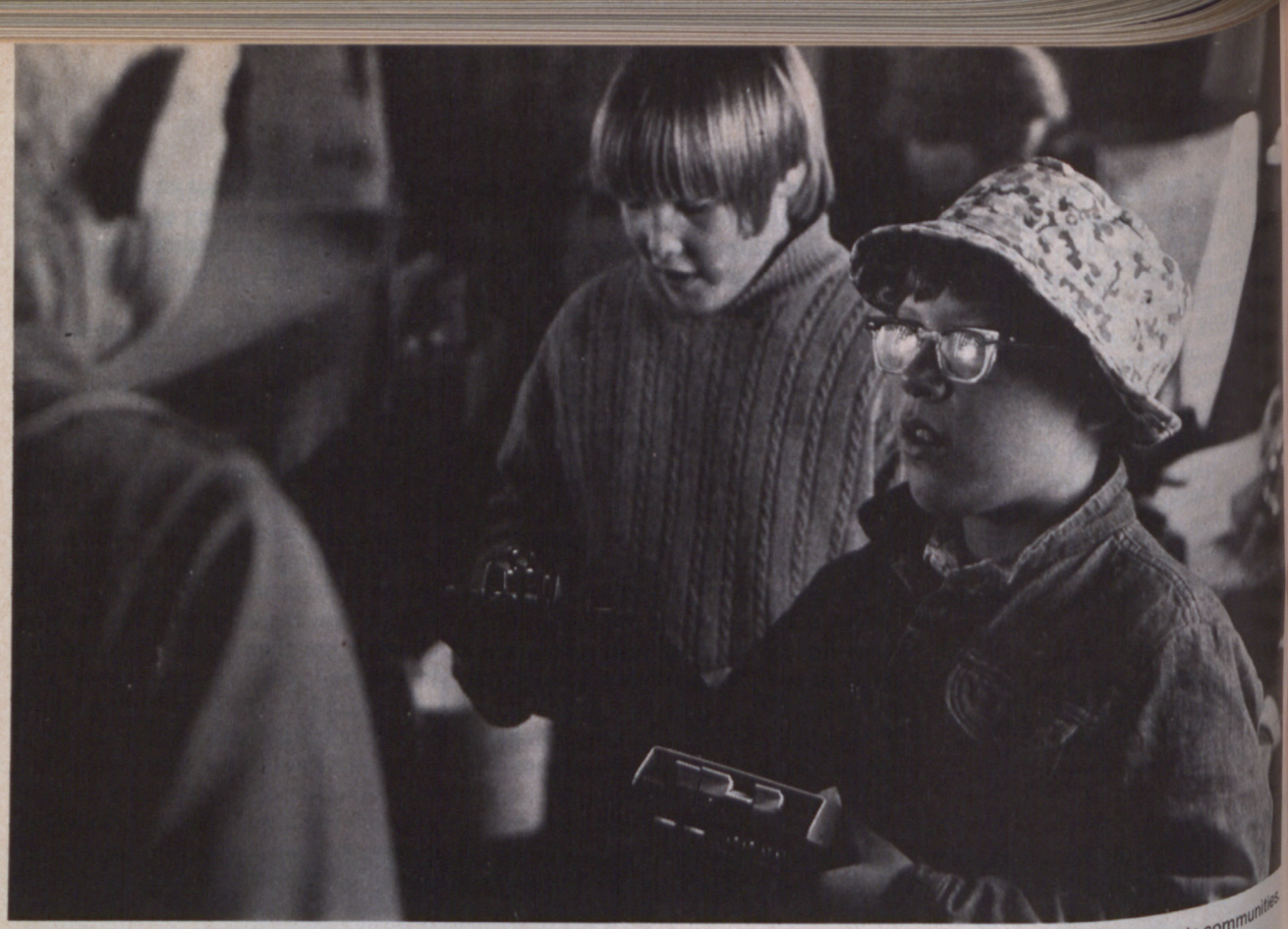
Projects for Integrating

By ourselves, in our own classrooms, we cannot modify and create curriculum all the time. We can, however, keep our eyes open and our ears attuned to special moments from which projects can grow. When those projects incorporate writing, students' motivation to do a good job on the written piece is often high.

> Here is a potpourri of ways to make writing from personal experience a central element in the life of every school.

Teachers can create special moments by reaching out to people and the natural and human-made environment beyond the confines of the school. This may mean taking children on short field projects outside the school or bringing things and people into the school. Both approaches have value, which I can illustrate with two examples.

Norman Krampetz, a sculptor in Wilmington, Vermont, enjoys working with students. In 1976, with the help of the local school and by contributing much of his own time, Norm moved a part of his studio into an open area in Deerfield Valley Elementary School, Wilmington, Vermont, adjacent to the library. For most of three weeks, he worked with groups of children, sculpting in clay, whittling and carving



Interviewing elder citizens can help youngsters to write about their communities.

wood, and talking about what they all were doing. The results were a great interest in clay and woodworking, many fine discussions, written work about what the children had created, and photographs of the pieces of sculpture.

No child had to leave the school in order to work with Norm. His presence was not meant to supplant an art program; it was not meant to fit into a slot in the curriculum at all. Rather, it gave students a particular experience for its own sake and the sake of motivating them to do some schoolwork related to the experience.

The project was not planned to influence writing in the school; it did so, however, just because many children were accustomed to expressing themselves in writing. They found it natural to write about this sculptor and the work they had done with him.

In 1979, across the continent from the sculptors, head teacher Joel Pelcyger led a convoy of parents' cars away from the Pluralistic School in Santa Monica, California. They were on their way to Sycamore Canyon and a campsite by a stream just 300 meters from the Pacific Ocean. Teachers, parents, and children camped overnight. All were assigned jobs, but they also had time to play and to decide where to sleep. In subsequent days, drawing, music, writing, and new relationships among children came from that day and a half near the coast.

Once again, the writing was the result not of assignments, but of teachers' and children's willingness to use writing as a means of recording and sharing experiences.

Not all of us can find a sculptor who will come to school. Many of us cannot or do not wish to go camping. But all of us, as teachers, can reach beyond the school to bring people and things to students or to bring the children to those resources.

For ideas about activities, I recommend Helen Ross Russell's *Ten-Minute Field Trips* (New York: Doubleday, 1970). Most of Russell's suggestions are suitable for the city, but many are useful in any setting. Other resources are listed at the end of this article.

Toward a Writing-Oriented School

One of the joys of teaching is that we can work with children in ways that put our individual talents to use. Children should be exposed to the varied talents and interests of many adults inside school as well as outside of it.

A teacher whom I met in Oregon helped me to see one sensible way to organize a school around talents and interests when she talked about a writing-oriented school and what that could mean for students. As a group of us developed the idea later, we realized that such a school could capitalize on all the talents of its teachers, in science, math, the arts, geography, or a special craft.

The faculty would agree that the many facets of writing would become part of the everyday life of the student in school. Displays of writing would be prominent. The library would feature student-made books. Existing or new school publications would portray the life of the school through the students' own words. Most of all, the faculty would agree to grasp opportunities to assign writing in all aspects of the curriculum.

A group of determined teachers, a teacher center, or some other strong force is necessary to create a writing-oriented school because our society has drifted far away from recognizing the usefulness and fun of writing. In the schools, this attitude manifests itself in

a much greater concern with reading than with writing.

Recognizing Student Writers

Suppose your classroom or school were oriented to writing and publicly committed to it. You would want to recognize some of the student writers for their skills in specific areas. Perhaps they should extend their experience beyond their own school and meet with other young writers at nearby schools.

Anne Watt, former director of the Mountain Towns' Teacher Center in southern Vermont, thought of a way to do just that in 1977. She began holding authors' lunches at the Teacher Center, located in a school in Mountain Town.

Children from different grades in the school came, eight or 10 at a time. They brought their own lunches, and the Teacher Center set out fruit, cookies, and juices on a round table. Anne and the students ate and then read their own stories, poems, or other writing.

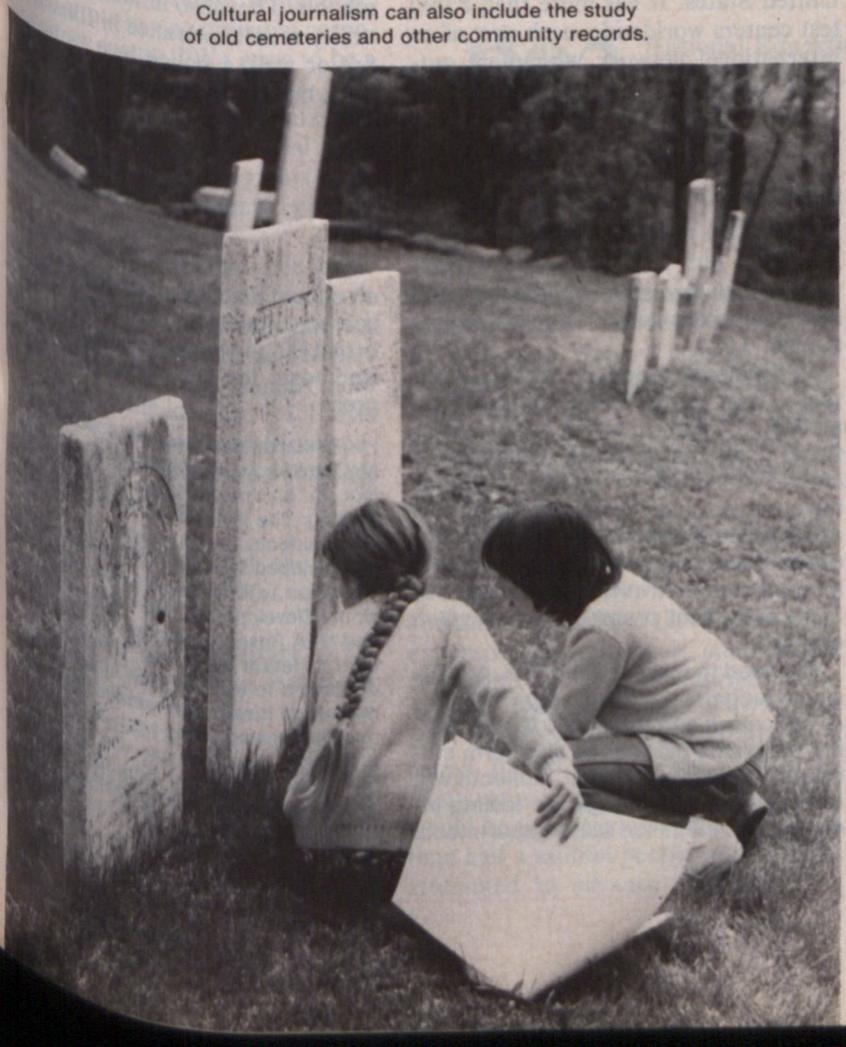
The Teacher Center also drew the teachers of these students together to talk about the children's work and about their own involvement in writing.

Often, the experience and the writing provide adequate involvement and reward for the writer. Once writing is underway in the classroom, however, many teachers and students are eager to create a product that can be shared with others. Sometimes they produce a newspaper or magazine and distribute it to other classes, parents, and the local community.

A kind of writing and publishing that has seen great success in junior and senior high schools is *cultural journalism*. Young cultural journalists gather oral history and write it up in the manner of *Foxfire* (published in Rabun Gap, Georgia). Cultural journalism brings students into contact with many people in their community and gives everyone involved with the project a special sense of the history and people of that community.

One writing product that I have always treasured is *Pencil to Press Poetry*, a booklet produced annually for several years by Alice Chapman's sixth grade class in Brattleboro, Vermont. *Pencil to Press* is exactly what the name implies: poetry written, typeset on a very simple press, printed, and bound by students right in the classroom. Several issues of these small booklets have been valued by parents, children, and teachers as fine examples of children's work brought to completion.

Cultural journalism can also include the study of old cemeteries and other community records.



Teachers Get into the Act

Remember the example of teacher Kate Jamentz: She read her own story to her class, taking the same risks in exposing her thoughts and her words that her students took.

When we deal with learning experiences and writing for students, we must remember that the teacher should be involved in all these activities as well. We need to participate: to keep our own journals or to write alongside our students, putting pen to paper. We need to share "the context of our lives" just as students share theirs.

Teachers who believe writing is important can join together to make writing from personal experience a formal focus of their school's curriculum. Teachers, students, and the community at large all benefit from such involvement in a vital skill that has many rewards. □

Resources

The Teachers and Writers Collaborative in New York has done two books on children's writing, the *Whole Word Catalogs 1 & 2* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1977). Richard Larson has collected theories and techniques on teaching writing in *Children and Writing in the Elementary School* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1975). Donald Graves expresses a strong argument for writing in *Balance the Basics: Let Them Write* (New York: Ford Foundation, 1978). Kenneth Koch helps us all to relax and write poetry in *Wishes, Lies, and Dreams* (New York: Vintage, 1970).

Two excellent resources for motivating writing are David Weitzman's *My Backyard History Book* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1975) and *Underfoot* (New York: Scribners, 1976). The many *Foxfire* books, edited by Eliot Wigginton, can help teachers use cultural journalism with students. Even a book that does not deal with writing may serve teachers well: for example, Frederick Franck's *The Zen of Seeing* (New York: Vintage, 1973) presents a case for careful observation. Teachers can read about how the whole curriculum works together, with writing as a major focus, in Dorothy and John Paull's *Yesterday I Found* (Boulder: University of Colorado, 1972).

"The Reign of ETS"

a brief summary of the Ralph Nader report on the Educational Testing Service

"Life may have less mystery, but it will also have less disillusionment and disappointment. Hope will not be a lost source of strength, but it will be kept within reasonable bounds." These words, which appeared in the 1950 annual report of a new organization called the Educational Testing Service (ETS), heralded the emergence of a new kind of corporate power, the power to assign millions of people to their places in education and the economy and to change the way they think about their own potential.

Some of the nation's most powerful foundations, universities, and corporations created and supported the Educational Testing Service. It combined institutional influence with a bold vision of social planning, which encompassed, as Henry Chauncey, the company's founding president, put it in the 1950 *Annual Report*, "the whole national man-power, woman-power, and child-power." Unlike more conventional organizations, ETS was not in business to make a profit, sell products, teach students, or wield government power.

Instead, operating primarily through the medium of paper-and-pencil multiple-choice tests, ETS would convince people that it had measured their minds and would then use those measurements to shape their educational and career opportunities.

Thirty years later, the ETS vision of a society where ETS multiple-choice tests defined the reasonable bounds of hope had become a reality for millions of people.

The Educational Testing Service sells more tests than Ford and General Motors, combined, sell new cars in the United States. It has more than 5,000 test centers worldwide, each part of an international network with more outposts than the U.S. Department of Defense. It is a network that extends, in the words of an ETS annual report, "from Antarctica to Zaire."

ETS tests influence, among other things, the chance to enter half of U.S. colleges, 75 percent of U.S. graduate programs, 80 percent of business schools, and 100 percent of law schools. They also influence the opportunity to sell insurance in Illinois; [illegible] fire or walk a police beat in Philadelphia; become an officer in the Liberian

By ALLAN NAIRN *and* ASSOCIATES

NEA'S POSITION ON TESTING

NEA strongly supports testing and rigorous assessment of student performance.

NEA rejects, however, standardized tests that emphasize competition against a "norm" rather than educational goals. Large-scale, mass-administered standardized testing programs have moved away from the major and appropriate objectives of testing: diagnosis of learning needs, prescription of instructional activities, and measurement of student progress in curriculum content.

We need to use our expertise, professional judgment, and influence with other educators and the public to end testing programs that abuse and harm students. Individually and collectively, teachers must challenge the testing industry and influence state departments of education and other groups to research, develop, and disseminate a broad range of alternatives to standardized tests for evaluating learning progress.

—**Willard McGuire,** *NEA president.* McGuire wrote at greater length on this subject in an introduction to "Standardized Testing: The Frustrating System That Traps Our Students," a kit on testing.

Developed by NEA Communications in cooperation with NEA Instruction and Professional Development, NEA Affiliate Services, and NEA Research, the kit has been distributed to state and local association presidents and to UniServ staff. It contains information on how to get parents and the community involved in the truth-in-testing issue, a checklist teachers can use to judge their own school's testing program, reprints of articles on testing, and an annotated bibliography on the subject.

One of several ads NEA offers to local education associations for use in local publications.

Yesterday, a bright child.

Today, "below average."

Meet Melanie. She's a first-grader who's just taken her first standardized test. Melanie is a bright and happy child; but she has just been branded "below average" by the people who make tests.

All through their lives, students are subjected to standardized IQ tests, Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SAT's), Graduate Record Examinations (GRE's), and many other tests. These tests don't measure what a student knows.

Yet people are classified by the tests as "above average" or "below average" and decisions about class placement, college admissions, and entering a profession are based on the results.

Parents need to know how children are being categorized. To find out more, write:

[Name, address, and phone number of local association.]

nea National Education Association
1201 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036

Merchant Marine; practice law in 42 states; or receive a scholarship from the State of Georgia, Union Carbide, or the Brotherhood of Steamfitters. Every year, ETS multiple-choice tests judge 7 to 9 million people who are trying to advance through thousands of schools and 50 different occupations.

In 1978, ETS President William W. Turnbull wrote in a confidential corporate strategy memo, "We grew to be a large omnipresent organization . . . a powerful, little-known organization that many people had to deal with involuntarily in order to gain (or be denied) access to educational opportunities."

Perhaps more than any other single U.S. organization—business or government—ETS is in a position to determine what individuals will be permitted to attempt to do. Though there is persuasive evidence that ETS tests fail to predict academic and occupational performance, they are a shaping, often capricious, force.

Even a brief review of the tests ETS offers can suggest the sweep of their influence:

• **Preschool and Elementary.** ETS advertises the Cooperative Preschool Inventory for children aged three to five as a test that can measure within 15 minutes a child's "achievement in areas regarded as necessary for success in school," such as perception, thinking, and verbal expression. With the *Sequential Tests of Educational Progress* (*STEP*), *School and College Ability Tests* (*SCAT*), and *CIRCUS* tests (for young children), in addition to the *Preschool Inventory*, the 1978 ETS *Annual Report* boasted, "ETS now has tests available—for the first time—that permit monitoring a student's progress in the major areas of instruction from preschool through the twelfth grade."

• **High School Admission, Graduation, and Equivalency.** At Andover, Groton, the Dhahran Aramco School, and more than 450 of the world's most expensive private schools, students are chosen on the basis of the *Secondary School Admission Test*. In 1977, the ETS Basic Skills Assessment program tested 70,000 high school seniors, in many cases to determine whether they would be permitted to graduate. More than half a million people who in 1978 attempted to advance themselves by earning a high school diploma-equivalent were screened by the ETS-authored Tests of General Educational Development.

• **College Admission, Financial Aid, and Placement.** Beginning in seventh grade with the *Junior Scholastic Aptitude Test*, continuing with the *Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT)*, and concluding (for high school at least) with the *Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT)*, students run a gamut of ETS tests to gain admission to, or financial aid for, college. Scholarships from organizations as diverse as Getty Oil Company and the State of New Jersey are granted according to scores on the *PSAT* as are, of course, the $12 million worth of National Merit and Achievement Scholarships that are awarded annually.

A 1976 College Board survey of member colleges found that 80 percent

considered test scores the "most important" variable in admission decisions. Students are also encouraged to use their *SAT* scores for self-selection; ETS publishes charts showing students how to calculate where their score would rank among other college applicants. The ETS College Scholarship Service's decisions provide the basis for college scholarship, loan, and work-study awards.

• **Graduate and Professional School Admission.** More than 75 percent of the 12,000 graduate programs listed in the *Graduate Programs and Admissions Manual 1979-1981* require the ETS *Graduate Record Examinations (GRE)*. Hundreds of fellowship-granting agencies also require the *GRE*'s. More than 80 percent of all business schools require the ETS *Graduate Management Admission Test (GMAT)*. Every accredited law school in America requires the ETS *Law School Admission Test (LSAT)*. In 42 states, the ETS *Multistate Bar Exam* is required for admission to the practice of law.

The ETS tests used in admission decisions are known as "aptitude" tests. According to ETS, an aptitude test measures "the capacity or potentiality of an individual for a particular kind of behavior." ETS claims that its aptitude tests can predict success by measuring potential for certain important kinds of thinking: ETS bulletins inform students that the tests measure such qualities as "the ability to understand what [they] read"; "certain mental abilities related to academic performance in law school"; "analytic ability as well as . . . verbal and quantitative ability."

The ability to predict first-year academic grades in college, graduate, or professional school is the empirical basis of ETS's claim to measure aptitude; a test's "validity" is often judged by how well it predicts this kind of future performance. ETS claims about the accuracy of their tests' predictions are bold. ETS President Turnbull, in a 1974 speech, claimed, "The evidence about college entrance tests as predictors of academic success is no longer a subject of legitimate dispute. . . . Most educators are quite familiar with the fact that the scores work in more cases than not, popular belief to the contrary notwithstanding."

ETS statements to students about the predictive accuracy of its tests are full of the word *perfect* and analogies to physical measuring tools. Alongside a diagram of an *SAT* score scale, drawn to resemble a thermometer, the bulletin for candidates receiving College Board scores states that "the chances are 2 out of 3" that one's score will "fall within a limited band around . . . the score you would earn if a test could measure your ability with perfect accuracy." ETS literature repeats the theme that although its tests are not *perfect* measuring instruments, even physical measurements are known to have some error. "Although test scores are good predictors of performances in college," writes William Angoff of ETS in an article explaining the *SAT* to counselors and teachers, "they are not perfect predictors."

This, to say the least, is putting it mildly. A physical measuring device such as the thermometer, which ETS officials often use to compare the accuracy of their tests, is accurate more than 95 percent of the time. According to figures compiled from 827 ETS validity studies conducted between 1964 and 1974, on the average, the *SAT* is more accurate than chance only 11.9 percent of the time in predicting first-year grades. Statisticians call this average accuracy a test's "percentage of perfect prediction." To see how often chance would predict grade ranking as well as a test within a group, the test's percent of perfect prediction is subtracted from 100 percent. This means that for the *SAT*, 88 percent of the time college grades could be predicted just as well by a random process, such as a roll of the dice. According to figures ETS presented in 1977, the average accuracy of the other ETS aptitude tests is about the same:

Percentage of Predictions in Which Random Prediction with a Pair of Dice Is as Accurate as an ETS Test	
SAT (college)	88%
LSAT (law school)	87
GRE (graduate school)	89
GMAT (business school)	92

Because test scores are not the only factor in admission—they are generally used along with previous grades—the 12 percent accuracy figure for the *SAT* actually overstates its practical predictive contribution. The compilation of ETS validity studies found that high school grades alone are about

TEACHERS AND STANDARDIZED TESTS

Standardized tests are widely used, usually inappropriately, to make decisions about pupil progress and the quality of school programs. Generally they produce "small answers to small questions." Teachers have little influence on standardized tests although their results greatly influence classroom practice.

The Educational Testing Service is a major producer of tests. The report summarized in the accompanying article points to a number of problems regarding the influence of this giant on the lives of teachers and students.

In order to improve present standardized-testing practices, teachers should find the answers to these questions:

• What testing does your state's legislation or state department of education require? Do these requirements promote learning?

• Have teachers been involved in determining the content of testing programs and the selection of tests?

• Do the tests adequately reflect the instructional program and curriculum of your school?

• Are important learning outcomes ignored by externally developed standardized tests?

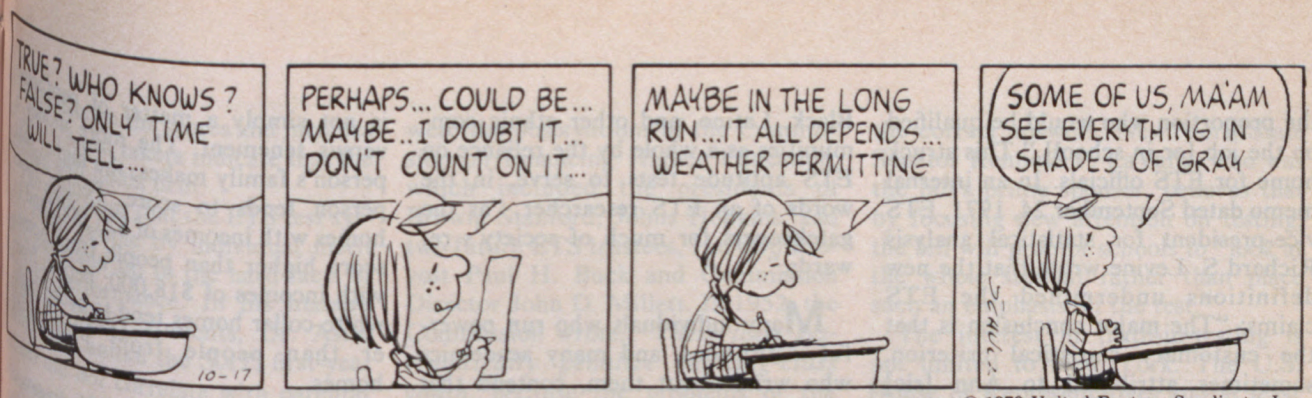
• Are any measures used to assess student strengths so programs can be planned on that basis?

• In what ways can you contribute your expertise to make decisions about testing student achievement or developing assessment methods?

• Do parents, policymakers, and other citizens understand the limitations of standardized tests?

When answers to questions such as these are unsatisfactory to teachers, they should speak out through their organized profession. Such efforts can produce evaluation practices that truly promote high quality teaching and learning.

—**Frances Quinto,** *NEA Instruction and Professional Development.*


TRUE? WHO KNOWS? FALSE? ONLY TIME WILL TELL...
10-17
PERHAPS... COULD BE... MAYBE..I DOUBT IT... DON'T COUNT ON IT...
MAYBE IN THE LONG RUN...IT ALL DEPENDS... WEATHER PERMITTING
SOME OF US, MA'AM SEE EVERYTHING IN SHADES OF GRAY
SCHULZ

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twice as good as the *SAT* in predicting college grades. And adding the *SAT* to high school grades only improved the accuracy of predictions by an average of 2.6 to 5 percent. This finding that the *SAT* has low predictive validity and makes little contribution to first-year grade prediction has been corroborated by an independent analysis of ETS validity studies by Douglas Porter and Warner Slack of the Harvard Medical School. Their findings will be published in a forthcoming issue of the prestigious *Harvard Educational Review*.

Marginal as they are, the predictions of first-year grades are the test's most accurate forecasts. Score correlations with grades in later years are lower still. Though the test purports to measure the aptitude to learn, Alexander Astin of the American Council on Education found that both low and high *SAT* scorers "showed similar gains in achievement during their undergraduate years." In a study of 36,581 students who entered 180 colleges in 1966, Dr. Astin found that the *SAT* had little ability to predict who will drop out of and who will persist in college: It provided an accuracy of only 3.2 percent for men and 2.9 percent for women. According to ETS figures, the *SAT* is only 5 percent accurate in predicting who will graduate from law school. The *GRE* has a similar record in predicting who will obtain the Ph.D.

Various kinds of biographical questionnaires and personal-rating scales have been found to predict grades nearly as well as, or better than, test scores. In a series of studies, psychologist Gene Smith used student ratings of their classmates on such characteristics as work orientation and found that in several cases, a composite "strength of character" score was three times more successful in predicting post high school academic success than any combination of 13 "academic aptitude measures" such as the *SAT*. Professor Anne Anastasi of Fordham University (later a winner of the ETS Award for Distinguished Service to Measurement) and two associates developed a student biographical inventory and compared the correlations of both this measure and the *SAT* scores to success in college. "In each of the comparisons, the two parts of the *SAT*, taken separately, had lower correlations with the criterion than the biographical inventory."

Standardized tests' predictions of success outside of school are no better. One study of 10,000 people found that the number of significant correlations between test scores and occupational success "did not exceed what would be expected by chance." A 1979 report by ETS researcher Leonard Baird on student accomplishment beyond the classroom concluded flatly that, rather than test scores, "information about past accomplishments is the best predictor of future accomplishments."

Even if ETS admission tests could predict first-year grades, the long-term relevance of that prediction would be open to question: An analysis for the American College Testing Program of 46 studies conducted between 1902 and 1965 concluded, "College grades bear little or no relationship to any measures of adult accomplishment." As one ETS researcher wrote, "No one can be found who will seriously defend the freshman year grade-point average as an important gauge of anything very important in life's list of desirable values."

The fact that Black, Latino, and some other minority group students tend systematically to receive lower scores on ETS tests than White students is well known. Because of this, minority students in many cases must earn *higher* grades than Whites in order to have an equal chance of admission. ETS insists that the low scores of minorities do not reflect deficiencies in the test but deficiencies in the preparation and potential of the minority students themselves.

But because the tests only predict future success only slightly better than pure chance, the result of the clustering of minorities on the lowest score brackets is that a lower percentage of qualified minorities than of qualified Whites are admitted and given a chance actually to perform.

The ETS claim that its tests are not biased against minorities is based on a definition that assumes a test is not biased if it predicts the first-year grades of minorities about as accurately as it predicts the first-year grades of Whites. (This definition was developed by ETS researcher T. Anne Cleary.) This definition ignores the fact that since the validity of grade prediction is low for *both* Whites and minorities, and minorities tend to receive lower scores, they can be excluded by a test score that has little connection to their actual ability to succeed.

In 1971, Professors R. L. Thorndike and R. B. Darlington published separate papers that proposed new definitions of test bias. Thorndike's definition (as paraphrased by an ETS researcher) was that a test of low validity "is unfair to the lower scoring group of applicants, in the sense that the proportion of that group that qualifies on the test will turn out to be smaller than

the proportion who would be qualified on the job [or in school]." This struck home for ETS officials. In an internal memo dated September 24, 1971, ETS vice-president for statistical analysis Richard S. Levine wrote that the new definitions undermined the ETS claims: "The major conclusion is that the customary statistical criterion, sometimes attributed to Ann [sic] Cleary, is inadequate. The argument that bias does not exist if regression lines coincide for two groups *appears to be untenable.*" (Emphasis added.) Subsequent research by several scholars has indicated that according to Thorndike's definition, the use of aptitude tests in many actual admission practices does discriminate against minority students. ETS, despite the verdict of its vice-president, has continued to this day to use the Cleary definition to assert that its tests are free of bias.

The implications of this pattern of bias are severe. Roy D. Goldman and Melvin H. Widawski of the University of California at Riverside, who studied four schools in the University of California System, for example, found that the addition of the *SAT* to high school grades did little to increase the admission of students who actually succeeded in school, but resulted in the admission of "far fewer Black and Chicano students."

No studies have even attempted, however, to estimate how many college graduates, lawyers, doctors, and professional people have been lost to the Black, Latino, and other ethnic communities as a whole by the reliance on ETS aptitude tests to serve, in the words of an ETS researcher, "as the gatekeepers for much of society's rewards."

Many individuals who run powerful institutions, and many academics who write about them, contend that American society, and higher education in particular, used to be something of an aristocracy where wealth and privilege ruled and the future of individuals was shaped largely by their economic background. This system, they argue, has been replaced by selection according to merit. Economic class is said to have given way to, in Henry Chauncey's words, "the democracy of multiple-choice tests."

ETS President Turnbull sums up this view:

> The ability to perform well on tasks sampled by examinations, along with other common indices of accomplishments, has come largely to replace considerations of family or wealth or religion or ethnicity as a basis for acceptance into selective colleges and professional schools.

The implication by test professionals that standardized aptitude testing replaced ranking based on class with ranking based on merit is misleading. A ranking of people by *SAT* scores remains by and large a ranking of people by family income. The pattern is consistent over time, geographic region, and fine gradations of income. It is not simply a matter of penthouse versus tenement. The more money a person's family makes, the higher that person tends to score. People from homes with incomes of $21,000 tend to score higher than people from homes with incomes of $18,000; people from white-collar homes tend to score higher than people from blue-collar homes.

Relationship Between *SAT* Average and Parental Income (1973-74)

SAT Average	*Parent's Mean Income**
750-800	$24,124
700-749	21,980
650-699	21,292
600-649	20,330
550-599	19,481
500-549	18,824
450-499	18,122
400-449	17,387
350-399	16,182
300-349	14,355
250-299	11,428
200-249	8,639

SOURCE: *College Bound Seniors*, 1973-74, Table 21, p. 27.

The ranking by class prevails not just when large groups are averaged together; it also prevails among applicants from individual institutions. Less

*In the United States, the chances of being at a given income level are directly related to ethnic background. According to College Board figures, the parents of Black students taking the 1978-79 *SAT* had a mean income ($13,700) less than half that of the parents of White candidates (27,300). Puerto Rican ($14,500), Mexican-American ($16,500), and other minority students also came from families with significantly smaller mean incomes.

THE RIGHT TRACK

The school sent home the first danger signals when the child was in third grade: He had not scored well on standardized tests and might be steered down a remedial track.

His mother refused to believe what she heard.

"I thought something was haywire. This was a kid who had designed whole games and could work three-dimensional puzzles as a preschooler," she recalled.

"I took him to a specialist in educational psychology, who said he was a very, very bright, very creative kid, and then I went back to the school and said, 'OK, what's going on?' "

The public school in Los Angeles' Eagle Rock section backed off, and Steven Hufstedler was kept on the fast track. Today, at age 26, he is a third-year medical student at the University of California at Irvine.

His mother, Shirley Mount Hufstedler, stayed on the fast track, too.

Recently, after 18 years as a local, state, and federal judge, she became the nation's first secretary of education.

This small, forceful woman, daughter of a schoolteacher and a building contractor, brought from the bench a deep concern about how people and institutions treat children.

She told Senators at her confirmation hearing that one of her top priorities in the new $14 billion Department of Education would be to weigh every federal policy for its impact on individual children.

"We have not been a child-caring society, really. We pay a lot of lip service to being child-caring, but to my mind we have not conspicuously demonstrated a commitment to children," the 54-year-old cabinet officer said.

After her son's experience, one of the things she discovered "going on" was a lot of tracking—putting youngsters into slots by their early test scores.

"Kids ended up with labels that were in many respects almost as destructive as tattooing numbers on prisoners," said Mrs. Hufstedler, who was active both in local school affairs and on state education committees. "Kids become prisoners of labels, and people no

detailed data on the scores and incomes of 1977-78 test takers indicate that the ranking still holds firm.

The assertions that the ETS test system ranks people by individual merit does not stand up to the hard facts of student performance. In his massive study of 36,581 students, Dr. Astin found that, unlike the *SAT*, first-year grades did *not* correlate with parental income. A 1969 ETS study of 15,535 college-bound students found that actual accomplishments outside the classroom did not correlate with income either: "Although educational ambitions were significantly related to accomplishments in several areas, family income was not. *That is, students from families with different incomes did not significantly differ in the number or level of accomplishments they reported.*" (Emphasis added.)

"This lack of a relationship between accomplishments and family background," wrote ETS researcher Leonard L. Baird in a 1979 summary of research in the field, "is supported by the National Merit studies which reported no significant correlation between these two types of variables in their samples. These results suggest that the accomplishment measures do not discriminate against disadvantaged students, although disadvantaged students do score lower on academic ability tests [i.e., ETS aptitude tests]."

Long since forgotten in the current climate of acceptance of ETS aptitude tests as measures of personal ability were the observations of the Commission on Financing Higher Education, which included the presidents of Brown, Stanford, Johns Hopkins, and two future ETS trustees, Harvard Provost Paul H. Buck and Commission Director John D. Millett. In 1952, the Commission wrote, *"These tests systematically penalize working-class youth*, because the problems of the tests are more familiar to middle-class than to working-class experience." (Emphasis added.)

By continuing to promote a class-determined test, ETS reduces the aspirations and opportunities of millions of working-class and poor people—without telling them why. ETS literature explains their condition by their low rank in "aptitude"; college catalogs explain it in terms of merit. But ETS's own statistics are the most telling; they document the ranking by *SAT* scores, in effect, as a ranking by social class—class in the guise of merit.

The power of ETS has been opened up to scrutiny and challenge by the passage, in 1979, of New York's truth-in-testing law, which requires public disclosure of internal test company studies of the tests' validity and data relating to possible cultural and class bias. It also requires the companies to inform test takers what their scores mean and how they will be presented to institutions, and to allow test takers, after scores have been sent out, to receive a copy of the test questions and the correct answers. New York State Senator Kenneth P. LaValle, who was the bill's prime sponsor, believes that by focusing new attention on testing, the bill will prompt schools to "look at the whole student rather than place such an emphasis on the test."

The interest in truth-in-testing is not limited to New York. The U.S. House of Representatives and at least 15 states are considering truth-in-testing legislation, and some testing programs, such as the *LSAT*, have extended their compliance with the New York law nationwide.

The rise of the truth-in-testing movement sets the stage for the emergence of a national reconsideration of the power to define potential, which has been steadily and quietly accumulated by psychometricians and their institutional leader, ETS. ETS is well aware of these conditions and is preparing a revealing response. A 1978 internal memo from President Turnbull enumerated criticisms of ETS and testing and discussed strategy on "how to invalidate, obviate, counter, [and] rebut them." ETS was about to enter an epoch of public questioning, Turnbull wrote, when reasoned discussion would not be adequate to sustain the corporate defense.

ETS has traditionally taken a rather dignified—even lofty—and apolitical approach to matters of public controversy. I believe we need to retain our dignity but realize that the problems lie much more in the realms of communications and politics

longer think about them to find out what they really can do."

She calls it "a personal bias: I have never had much use for true-false tests, nor for multiple-choice tests. I recognize they are easy ways mechanically to grade large numbers of papers. In many respects, they test the ability of people to take true-false tests. But for the imaginative person, these tests are very difficult to take, unless one is simply asking for rote information.

"If you really want to know whether the person knows the date of the Battle of Hastings, you can say, '1066—true or false?' and people can pass or fail."

She said she did not mean to criticize the schools "nor to say tests don't have their use. They do. But they also have been seriously misused in a number of circumstances. They do not test all kinds of subjective matters—judgment, intuition, creativity, imagination."

Mrs. Hufstedler does not believe that declining scores on the *SAT* and the National Assessment of Educational Progress prove the quality of America's schools is eroding.

"I view statistics with somewhat less awe than a lot of people do," said the former judge, who noted that crime can appear to be waxing or waning, depending on how crime indexes are constructed.

It may be that it is time for us to think about developing educational indicators, she said, like the business indicators that provide signals on whether the economy is up or down.

Today's children may not be good spellers, she said, but that is not emphasized in a society where "people who can be clever with words orally get more points than someone who is a meticulous writer. While I happen to be ensorcelled with the written word, I'm not prepared to say that must be the national value norm," she said, explaining for a reporter that *ensorcelled* means enchanted.

Everyone needs basic reading skills, she added, but a painter may "write creatively by using a brush, and it doesn't make any difference necessarily whether that person could win a spelling bee."

—Christopher Connell, *Associated Press.*

This article was released by the Associated Press on January 17, 1980.

than in logic and that the solutions are going to be found (or the battles lost) in hot arenas rather than in cool reason.

ETS has pursued its "hot arenas" strategy by such tactics as making sensational and unsupportable threats about the impact of truth-in-testing (such as the claim that the New York bill would "destroy" equating—a position abandoned by ETS technicians as soon as the bill was passed) and suggesting that advocates of testing reform are in fact pursuing a sinister "hidden agenda." On a more subtle level, ETS strategists are determined to make it seem that defense of the principles of standards, excellence, and the intelligent use of information is necessarily equivalent to defense of the ETS test system.

But ETS should not be given an intellectual monopoly to complement its economic one. It should not be allowed to define the choices in terms of ETS or nothing. Rather the choices should involve the question of which elements of the current test system or alternative systems should be maintained and which should be discarded. For instance, while the national network of testing centers provides a convenient and useful function, there is no reason why the offerings in those centers must be limited to ETS multiple-choice tests.

Growing consumer interest in the power of ETS is likely to reach a critical stage before long. We would like to offer some important considerations for that evolving national debate:

1. What are the effects of restricting the information system (that is, the test center network and information-processing facilities now controlled by ETS) to multiple-choice tests developed and chosen by a single organization? Limiting the information-gathering instruments to multiple-choice tests unfairly restricts the means by which individuals can demonstrate their skills and potential. Must reflections of student talent pass through ETS? Cannot essays (or scientific problem-solving exercises), for example, be sent to individual schools who could decide for themselves what they are looking for in the applicant—be it creativity, facility with the language, or analytic ability? As many educators have pointed out, reliance on multiple-choice tests can actually work against the development of these skills and encourage instead the mastery of the peculiar requirements of multiple-choice test taking.

2. What are academic and other institutions trying to accomplish with their admission policies? Precisely what goals and whose interests do those policies actually serve? Reliance on ETS tests raises basic questions about an institution's purposes, and students, parents, workers, and taxpayers should be asking them directly through meetings and discussions with admission officials. Among the key questions to be investigated from campus to campus:

- How important are the tests in the admissions process? What are the actual formulas used? How does the school account—if at all—for the tests' tendency to distribute scores along class and ethnic lines?
- What kinds of students are excluded through reliance on the tests?
- What does the institution claim to gain from requiring the test? How does test performance measure up against the institution's chosen criterion (such as predicting first-year grades), and how important is the criterion in the first place?

3. Should applicants have to bear the costs of the tests? One reason why colleges and universities have come to rely so heavily on the tests is that the tests do not cost them anything. Fees, on the other hand, can be a barrier for low-income students and provide a political weapon to the test industry, which can threaten fee increases when asked to change its procedures (as ETS and the College Board have done in response to truth-in-testing).

4. Is the ETS ranking really a meritocratic ranking? What is the purpose of claiming that it is? What is the purpose of demanding that alternative admission standards rank candidates in a similar fashion? The theory that the use of multiple-choice national admission tests produces a ranking by merit is not sustained by the evidence. Is it rational to rank applicants and thereby affect their long-term prospects with tests that provide only an 8 to 15 percent improvement over blind chance in the prediction of a short-term criterion such as first-year grades? The evidence suggests that the choice of the standard of merit—such as the tests—may depend on which class one is interested in serving. Selection by previous grades instead of scores, for example, would increase the proportion of working-class students admitted. Selection on the basis of previous accomplishments, ETS's own research has indicated, would virtually eliminate the class bias now inherent in selection by ETS aptitude tests.

5. Can significant reform be implemented given ETS's current position? ETS has proven remarkably resistant to change, even when proposed by test system insiders. Among the proposals that ETS officials and trustees have offered and ETS has rejected in the last few years: implementation of truth-in-testing style disclosure system; turning ownership of test scores and thereby control over their use over to test takers; phasing out the *SAT* in favor of an assortment of smaller tests in particular subject and skill areas; and abandoning the claim to measure such intangible qualities as "aptitude."

The ETS test system has operated for years as a large, powerful, and entrenched mechanism that serves the interests of its managers; offers convenience, prestige, and political justification to its clients; and, as long as consumers were not organized, made powerful enemies. ETS has an overwhelming economic and political interest in maintaining the current test system. But despite tremendous influence in the educational community, ETS recognizes that the matter of its future has moved into arenas outside of its domination.

President Turnbull wrote in his 1978 strategy memo, ". . . although many of the criticisms grow out of ignorance and some are wrong, others have substance. Moreover, the furor is widespread and shows no signs of going away. . . . The situation," President Turnbull concluded, "is most unlikely to blow over." □

This article was excerpted and adapted from *The Reign of ETS: The Corporation That Makes Up Minds* by Allan Nairn and associates (The Ralph Nader Report on Educational Testing Service). The full 55-page report may be obtained for $30 from Learning Research Project, P.O. Box 19404, Washington, DC 20036.

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Meet Rudy Flores

"Whatever it is, I'll do it if it'll help that student understand what I'm trying to say," says Rudy Flores with a smile. While he speaks, his fingers move steadily, showing how his statement looks in signed English.

Rudy Flores teaches deaf children at Birney Elementary School in Tacoma, Washington, which draws deaf pupils from a wide area and teaches them alongside the hearing.

What is it like to teach the deaf? Today's Education *writer Jane Power recently asked Rudy Flores that and other questions about his work.*

You are hearing, and your students are deaf. How do you communicate with one another?

We use total communication, which is sign language and speech at the same time.

Total communication means that I'll use whatever method I have to use to get a student to understand. I'll use finger spelling, letter by letter. I'll use sign language, whole words at a time. I'll use mime. I'll draw a picture on the board. If I have to stand on my head and spit BB's, I'll do it if it'll help a student understand what I'm trying to say.

When your students sign, do they use Ameslan [American Sign Language, which uses English words but has its own syntax]?

Not all the time. When we're working on language, we use signed English instead. We sign it as you would say it in regular English, using the right sign to indicate the right tense.

When we're doing reading, the kids sign the words exactly as they're written. When we're doing language, they're going to sign the sentences properly, and they're going to write them properly. I expect it.

Where does Ameslan fit in?

Ameslan is the easy way to say things. Instead of signing *I don't know*, they shrug their shoulders. If we hearing people can do that and find it acceptable, why can't we allow deaf people the same liberty?

If deaf kids are in a social situation with other deaf kids, they're going to pick up Ameslan. They're going to talk the easiest way they know how, they're going to have noun-verb disagreement, the sentence structure is going to be all turned around. You can no more stop them from doing that than you can tape an oral kid's mouth shut.

When deaf kids meet with older deaf people, too, Ameslan is what they're going to use. They're going to value that experience of having contact with an older deaf person. So I don't discourage the Ameslan at all. I think it's part of deaf kids' total language learning.

Do you try to get all the deaf students to talk?

Talking is always a goal and an important one, but we have to keep in mind that it may not be realized.

At the end of last year, we took our kids to McDonald's. We lined them up outside, gave them each a dollar from some money left over in a fund, and said, "OK, go."

Some of the kids were shocked, their eyes got big, they got scared: "What am I going to do?"

"Go in and buy something to eat."

Sooner or later, they have to realize that they are going to be in situations when the teacher is not going to be there, their mother is not going to be with them.

And they all got to eat?

They all got to eat. The kids who couldn't speak very clearly signed their orders to the kids who could talk.

We didn't say anything; we just sat back and let them go. "He wants a hamburger, and he wants a Coke."

We weren't trying to put them on the spot, but just to see what their reaction would be and how they'd handle it. They did pretty well—we were proud of them.

Do they talk at all in class discussion?

Yes, they all talk, and I understand the kids in my classroom when they speak even when I'm not watching their hands. Even with the ones who don't have great speech, I understand what they're saying because I have contact with them every day.

When they talk, do they sign at the same time?

Yes.

So that the other kids can understand them by looking at them?

A whole lot of repetition is inherent in the learning process.

Yes. They learn how to sign almost as fast as we can talk. It takes time to learn it, but it's not that hard.

Does everyone at the school know sign language?

All the teachers have a working knowledge of it; all the students are learning sign language. Starting in kindergarten, we have a half hour a day for every class.

We offer free sign language classes to parents and anyone who's interested. Two of our teachers give classes on Wednesday nights, and everyone comes in. Our kitchen helper was taking it; our school secretary was taking it; we had parents there.

Do you ever find yourself signing a little bit when you're just having a conversation?

Not in Ameslan or signed English, but I finger spell all the time. I'll be watching television and finger spelling the news, maybe. It's fun, and it's good to practice finger spelling, because a lot of deaf people don't know some of the word signs we use. If you finger spell, letter by letter, everybody is going to understand what you're saying.

Which classes do deaf and hearing students take together at Birney?

We combine the deaf and hearing students all the way through school for social activities, art, PE. Last year my fourth grade class had two and a half hours a week, on Thursdays, of art, music, and PE with the regular fourth grade class.

One year our deaf sixth grade classes were included in a math program for an hour a day with the regular sixth grade class. They did quite well. This year our fourth grade class is integrated into one district-wide math program.

Math is an area that deaf students usually don't have a whole lot of problems with. Usually deaf kids seem real rigid about what they learn, and in math, everything is pretty cut and dried. There's not a lot of language involved, as long as you understand the concepts.

English is different. So many things are changeable in the English language. If you put in a question mark or an apostrophe, it changes the whole meaning. It's hard for them to understand that. I've had just one class that could be involved in a reading program with hearing students, because their language was that good, their ability to write was that good.

How did you teach the music lessons?

Some people think that deaf people can't hear a thing. Well, that's not so, but depending upon their hearing range, they're going to be hearing different things, low-frequency, high-frequency, or frequencies in between. So it's hard.

I had a deaf aide, and we worked on the signs for the words of the song ahead of time. Then she read my lips as I played my guitar and sang, and she signed the words.

We taught all the kids—the hearing ones, too—the signs for each song. We taught the deaf kids the signs, and we said, Now, you be the teacher and

show this kid the right signs, and you'll both sing together.

The value of it was, one, the deaf child was helping someone learn something, and two, a hearing kid came in contact with a deaf kid and learned that everybody is the same. Then they all sang as a group. We had a lot of fun with that.

How can deaf kids sing?

They use their voices, they try to sing the words, but they're off-key because they can't hear or read music. If you play a chord, though, all the kids can put their hands on the wood and feel it, and everyone is signing the song together.

You know, it's uncanny about the vibrations. Some of the deaf are fantastic dancers. They turn the music up all the way, and they can feel the vibrations coming through the air, in the floor. They can feel the beat, and it is not that hard to dance to it.

Rhythm is something you don't have to be deaf to not have or to have. A lot of people that hear can't dance for anything. It's the same for deaf people. Some can, some can't.

How do the deaf and the hearing kids get along together?

When I first arrived at Birney, there were so many problems. The kids were continually fighting, harassing, teasing. The little deaf kids would get together and pick on the hearing kids, and the hearing kids would get together and push the deaf kids.

The fights start because the kids don't know how to talk to each other. They don't know how to communicate, so they just express their feelings by hitting out.

One of the things that we've been working on with our deaf kids is teaching them the language of feeling, so they can let people know they don't like something or how it makes them feel.

We're also getting the kids together in school activities, giving them an opportunity to realize, Hey, this guy is all right, or She can run just as fast as I can, or He's really cute. All the things that are important to fourth and fifth and sixth graders.

It's amazing, the change that's taken place. There are almost no problems of behavior or of compatibility between the hearing kids and the deaf kids now.

How big are your classes, or the classes of deaf students in general?

They are all either six or seven. My class last year was a class of six. By state law, the maximum is seven.

And you have them for the full day?

They come in at 9, and they're gone at 2:30. I'd like to have them from 8 to 4.

I'd love to have year-round school, because when the kids are home for even two months, I have to start all over again with them when they return to school, doggone it. I just have to start plugging away and refresh, refresh, review, review.

So that frustrates me, I don't like it. I don't feel that I need two or three months' vacation. After two weeks, I'm ready to go back.

Really?

Really, I am.

We've been hearing so much about burned-out teachers lately.

Well, a whole lot of whatever you're doing as a teacher is a matter of attitude—as long as you're not in physical danger. If you tell yourself, Doggone it, it's just November 29, and I can't wait till Christmas break, then when Christmas break comes you're ready for it. You've talked yourself into being just as tired, just as burned out as you can be.

So I think teachers do it to themselves. Maybe that's wrong. I don't know.

Does deafness create other problems for students besides just not being able to hear?

A lot of other problems. They have trouble developing the concept of their relation to their surroundings. As I understand it, little children use their hearing to do that. They only see what they're looking at, but they hear from all around. That is how they place themselves.

Then, the deaf are so alone. It's hard to imagine the isolation of a deaf person. You have little or no speech, and you hear almost nothing. If you and the people around you don't know sign language, your ability to communicate is so limited. You go down the street, and you hear nothing. Everything is a void.

It must be hard to feel at home in a silent world.

The best-adjusted deaf kids that I've come in contact with are those that come from deaf families, because from the outset, the parents know how to communicate with a deaf person. Think of a little kid who at dinnertime, at play time, at bedtime, has no one to talk to. There is no verbal communication—just maybe a hug, maybe a kiss, maybe the kid throws a tantrum and gets a spanking. The parents have to learn how to communicate.

When you see kids who, because they're deaf, have emotional problems, you have to realize that their reality is much different from your own. That's what I think we have to deal with as teachers.

What are some differences you've found between teaching deaf kids and teaching hearing kids?

The deaf miss a lot socially, conceptually. You can never assume that they know anything.

Think about the way a student learns. A whole lot of repetition is inherent in the learning process, but most of it is audio repetition.

In teaching deaf kids, I make sure that there is a continual visual and tactile repetition. I cannot assume, Well, I've given this information today, and now I'm going to push on. I've got to give it to them again and again.

And I've got to pretest, posttest, retention-test—then, by golly, I've got to find out, Did you get it? If you didn't, let's go back.

When I'm working with deaf students, I have to preteach vocabulary relating to a unit. If it's a math unit, the kids have to understand conceptually what a fraction is, what the numerator is, and also what the denominator is.

Whatever unit we're working on in reading, we learn the vocabulary words in it first. We have a pretest on Wednesday, we have a posttest on Friday, and we have a retention test down the line. So when the kids see a word, they're familiar with it.

Throughout the lesson they can interrupt to ask questions. If they have a question, I stop everything. I answer it.

Do you think that deaf students—or many of them—need so much individual attention that they really can't be in a class full of hearing kids all day?

That would depend totally on the kid. You can't say, All deaf kids can do this. I know a very, very successful deaf person who is now working in San Francisco, doing a children's program for the deaf.

He has good speech, he has fantastic vocabulary, he's very bright. He went to Birney when they just used to take the deaf kids and throw them in a regular hearing class.

I asked him, "How did you feel when you were going through Birney? What did you learn?"

And this was his answer:

I had great lipreading ability, and I got about 20 percent of everything that went on in class.

Everything depends on where they seat you. If they seat you in the front row, you're going to miss almost everything that every kid says, because you can't see their lips move.

If the teacher is turned sideways to you and his shoulder is in the way of his mouth, you don't get anything of what he says. If he turns around and is saying something as he writes on the board, you miss everything he says.

So you get about 20 percent if you're lucky, if you're watching everything that's going on, and if you happen to be sitting in a good spot.

Take a hard-of-hearing student who's got good speech, who's smart, who has good lipreading skills and a good self-image. Stick that kid in a classroom and let him or her go. That one probably will succeed.

But if a student's got a poor self-image, got poor speech, got lousy hearing, and the classroom teacher doesn't give him a lot of individual attention, that one probably will fail.

How did you become interested in teaching the deaf?

When I was in the military, down at Fort Sill, Oklahoma, the wife of one of the people I worked with was in teacher education at Jane Brooks School for the Deaf in Chickasha. That's an oral residential school for the deaf, with a teacher training program. I'd visit that couple, and I met deaf kids there.

After I finished my military, I went back to school, then my wife and I went to Europe for a year. When we came back, we ended up in her hometown, Maysville, Kentucky.

I did social work for a year and loved it, but I couldn't live on it. We were planning to have children, and the pay was terrible. I had to do something to make just a little bit more money, in case my wife wanted to quit work.

By that time I was interested in deaf education, so I went to graduate school. I taught a hearing class in Seattle one year, and I've been in Tacoma ever since.

Your family is Mexican. What was your experience with Spanish and English? Did it help you understand the problems of the deaf in any way?

My father always encouraged us to use English at home. Once in a while we used Spanish.

But I was really lucky. Until I was eight or nine, every summer we'd head for Grandma's house. And my grandmother would not speak English. If you wanted to eat, you'd better learn how to say it in Spanish.

It really helped me, because I learned how to communicate in Spanish with her. I wasn't afraid to use the language my family had used forever.

In reviewing each case, ask yourself, Is that what's good for this kid?

So the experience you've had with language has shown you—

People's experience with language is important. If they speak a language that isn't really very useful for talking with educators, it shouldn't just be destroyed. That is their reality—that's where their roots are, and that's how they communicate with their peers.

If I live in a barrio and I use English in the classroom, I should use it the correct way when I'm in the classroom. But when I get back home and my grandmother's there, I'm not going to use English with her. So why destroy my language? And I think that it is important for deaf students to know: Sign language is my own language.

Is there anything that teachers ought to be sure to remember when they get a deaf student in class?

We've had a few teachers that heard they were going to get some deaf students, part time, and panic set in: "I can't do this, I don't know anything about them, I don't know how to teach them."

Well, for a deaf child, the most important thing is for the teacher to try to be accepting. Don't treat deaf children as special because they're deaf. Treat them like everyone else. If you pick them out as special, you're going to make some of the others antagonistic toward them.

A deaf student is going to present special problems. I would hope that there will always be some kind of interpreter in class so that the child can understand what's going on. I would hope that there will be some way to review, at the end of a given session, what went on in that classroom and to make sure that the deaf student understands the work.

This year, a neat thing happened in the sixth grade math class that has both deaf and hearing students. The teacher made the effort to use sign language.

I'd go by his room and see him up in front of the class, signing to tell the kids what to do in math. An interpreter didn't have to do it while the teacher just stood there because he did know sign language. The teacher was doing it, and that's neat.

That's what I think we look for—shared responsibility and cooperation. You can't legislate or enforce that. There has to be a certain feeling within a group of people and within a building that supports that.

I think a lot of times we've legislated a lot of things we don't really think through, and that's a problem. You can legislate all you want, but if people don't want something, they're going to resist it.

How can people decide where to place a deaf child?

For a lot of deaf students the appropriate least restricted environment is the self-contained special education classroom. So in reviewing each case, ask yourself, Is that what's good for this kid?

At Birney School, we have an occupational therapist, a physical therapist, a Ph.D. psychologist, a social worker, the principal, the teacher, and the parents who all work together to do what's best for a kid. We hash it out.

We're really lucky. We come to pretty good decisions about kids. Not all the time, but most of the time.

What are the prospects for a deaf student who finishes Birney and then finishes high school?

A lot of times, once our deaf students get out of high school—unless they happen to be exceptional students—they're left by the wayside. We don't have data about what happens to them. How many deaf youngsters are failing? What did we do wrong? Is it society, is it the school program, is it the teaching?

Sure, we have a certain number of kids that go to Gallaudet College for the Deaf in Washington, DC, or to the National Technical Institute for the Deaf in Rochester, New York. We have some who go to Seattle Central Community College for the excellent program that they have there. But that's a minority. Many crop up two or three years later with a bunch of kids and no jobs. And that's a crime.

But some of your own students are going to do pretty well after they leave school?

I've had whole classes of bright kids—that was a pleasure. And for example, I had one student who really had a knack for mathematics—a little Black girl with a bad temper, but just as sweet as she could be.

I hit math hard, because if a kid can't speak, that's a big strike against him. But if a kid with that deficiency has a math background, a lot of things are going to be open to him that don't involve talking.

So I'm really big on math. This girl really grasped it, and she's got a pretty good language base. In junior high, she was the only deaf kid in the school who was taking algebra class with the hearing kids. I was tickled to death, because she's going to fly. She's really got it.

Are there any special materials that teachers can use with deaf students?

They can order captioned films. The state library here has a whole series—films on health, history, all the old Disney films that are really neat—*Snow White, Pinocchio, Big Red.* The largest library of captioned 16mm films for the deaf is in the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped in Washington, DC.

Gallaudet College has the largest video collection and publishes a really nice signed English series which includes a dictionary that teachers can order for young students. The series has books like *The Three Little Pigs,* all the children's classics, written in sign language underneath the regular type.

Louie Fant puts out a good series of books on synonyms, and there are good books on idioms for the deaf. Those are really, really important.

Teachers who have never taught kids that have labeled handicaps may wonder what it might be like. What makes it better or harder or worse or more rewarding than teaching so-called normal children?

As far as the kids go, kids are kids. The responsibility of the teacher doesn't change. You're there to do a job, to teach kids the best way they can learn, whether it's through sign language or through speech. You figure out what the kid's problems are, if they're emotional, psychological, or physical. And you work around them or else try to figure out a way to make them positive and work for the kid, and you go.

You have to understand, of course, who you're working with. You have to understand the problems of the deaf and what to do. So maybe the training might be a little different. But it's all the same thing, you're teaching.

It doesn't change, it's teaching, and you get excited about it the same way. □

NEA Resolution B79-26
Communication Between the Hearing and the Hearing Impaired

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Birdseye Mastery Masters. Beverly Cory. Four booklets: *Grammar and Usage, Phonics and Spelling, Word Meaning,* and *Word Structure.* Twenty-two spirit duplicating masters in each. Designed for students in the intermediate grades. 1980. 22 pp. $4.50 each.

Look It Up! 101 Dictionary Activities To Develop Word Skills. Nicholas P. Criscuolo. Includes activities for finding words, exploring dictionary definitions, and getting the most information from the dictionary. Recommended for grades four through eight. 1980. 72 pp. $3.50.

The following publications, by Richard P. Archer, are available from the American Spelling Headquarters, 2120 Jimmy Durante Blvd., Suite M, Del Mar, CA 92014. Each is available at grade levels four through 12.

Concept Spelling Student Workbook. Introduces a method of learning how to spell based on logic instead of memory. Presents concepts on how English words are spelled and learned. Provides a teaching and a learning strategy. 1979. 84 pp. $3.

Introduction to Concept Spelling: Teacher's Guide. 1979. 48 pp. $5.

Developing Active Readers: Ideas for Parents, Teachers, and Librarians. Edited by Dianne L. Monson and Day-Ann K. McClenathan. Gives ideas for selecting books and introducing children to libraries. Recommends methods to help children interact with books. 1979. 104 pp. $3 (price for Intl. Reading Assn. members); $4 (price for nonmembers). Intl. Reading Assn., 800 Barksdale Rd., Newark, DE 19711.

The following guides are available from Roslyn Snow, Dept. EJJ, 3400 Meadow Brook, Costa Mesa, CA 92626. Designed for students in grade school through college who have problems with spelling and punctuation. Gives instant references, rules, and examples for most spelling and punctuation prob-

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The following paperbacks, written by Rosanne Keller, are available from New Readers Press, Box 131, Syracuse, NY 13210. Each designed to provide entertaining fiction at a low reading level.

Five Dog Night and Other Tales. Contains four short stories set in Alaska. Third grade reading level. 1979. 32 pp. $1.

The Many Ears of CB Radio. Includes information needed to operate a CB, zens band radio and stories about operators who became heroes by using their CB's. Third grade reading level. 1979. 48 pp. $1.25.

Two for the Road. Contains two short stories: "Ms. Trucker," which presents a tale of the battle of the sexes, and "The Ups and Downs of a Pikes Peak Peanut Pusher," which tells of a man who pushed a peanut to the summit of Pikes Peak. Second grade reading level. 1979. 32 pp. $1.

The following books are available from Holiday House, Inc., 18 E. 53rd St., New York 10022.

The Hospitals: A Nineteenth Century America Book. Leonard Everett Fisher. Traces the development of hospitals in America during the nineteenth century. Emphasizes hospital workers' compassion, pioneering spirit, and scientific discoveries that are a part of America's social history. Recommended for ages nine through 12. 1980. 64 pp. $7.95.

Say Hello, Vanessa. Marjorie Weinman Sharmat. The story of Vanessa, a shy mouse, and her struggle to make friends. Recommended for ages four through eight. 1979. 32 pp. $5.95.

The following publications are available from the National Assn. for the Education of Young Children, 1834 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20009.

Ideas That Work with Young Children, Volume 2. Edited by Leah Adams and Betty Garlick. Reprints of articles from *Young Children*. Includes ideas for program planning, teaching with impact, teaching language arts, conducting learning activities, helping children cope, and encouraging parent/child and teacher/child relations. 1979. 244

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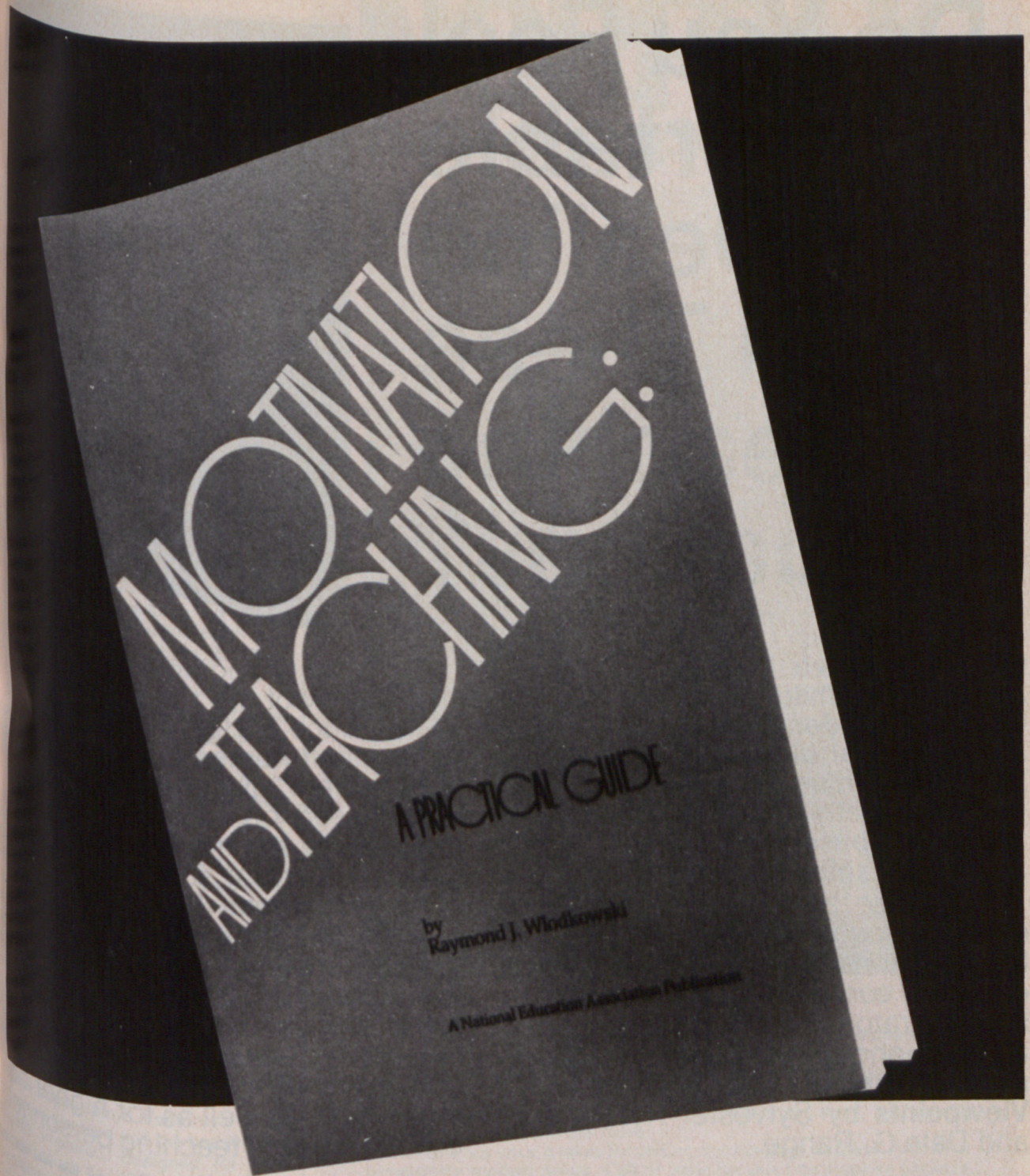

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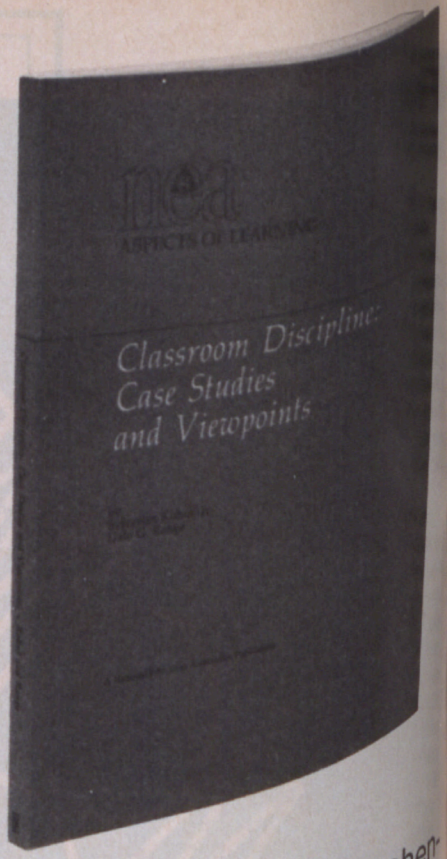

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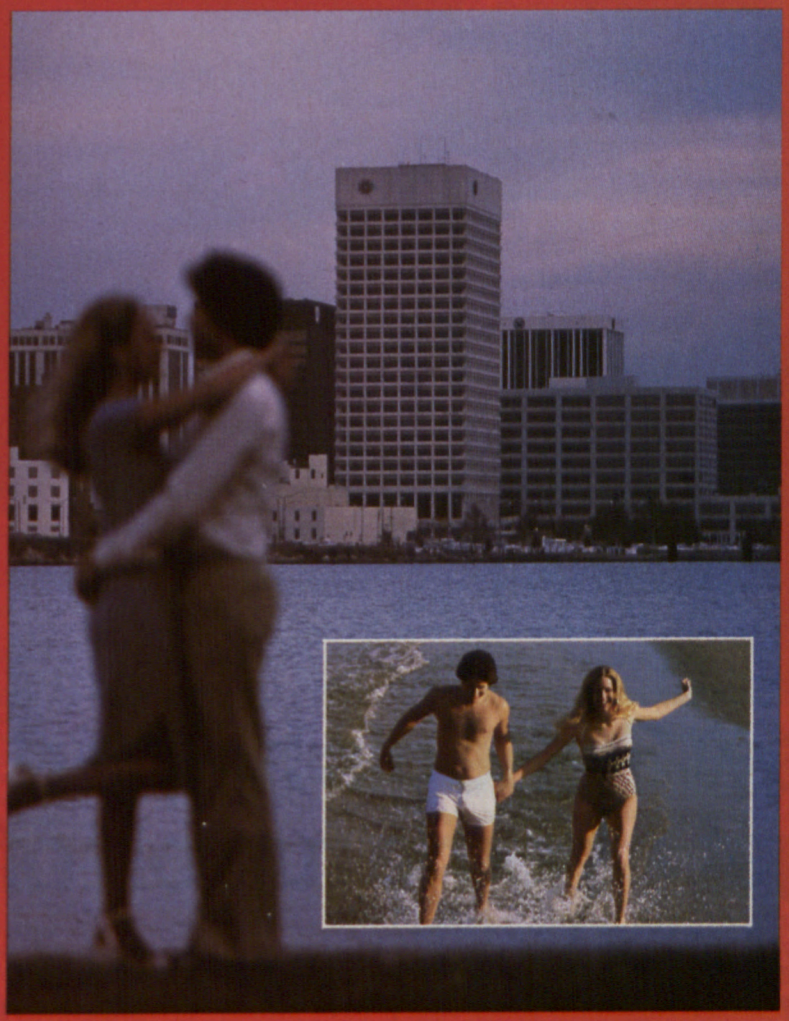

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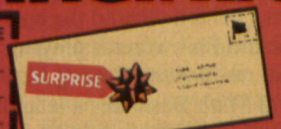

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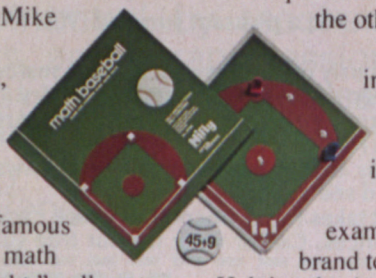

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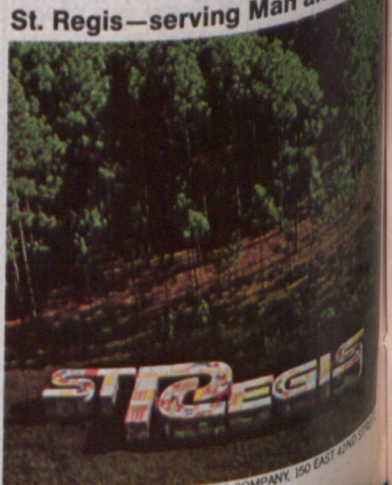

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Teaching All Children To Read. Michael A. Wallach and Lise Wallach. Evaluates recent attempts to come to grips with educational difficulties of poor children. Presents a tutorial program designed to teach basic reading skills to underachieving first graders. 1979. 332 pp. $5.50 (paper). The University of Chicago Press, 5801 Ellis Ave., Chicago 60637.

Totalaction: Ideas and Activities for Teaching Children Ages Five to Eight. Pat Short and Billee Davidson. Suggests activities in language arts, arithmetic, science, social studies, fine arts, and physical education. Includes suggestions for developing work-card sets, graphs, booklets, games and tasks, projects, handwork, physical activities, and worksheets. 1980. 143 pp. $9.95. Goodyear Pub. Co., Inc., 1640 5th St., Santa Monica, CA 90401.

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Classroom Tips

ELEMENTARY

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Chula Vista, California.

These are suggestions made or collected by Ms. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas for possible use in future issues of Today's Education. *Ms. Field asks that those who submit classroom tips keep copies of their material, as she cannot return the originals.*

Mail suggestions to Box CT, Today's Education, *1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

Psychologist Joyce Loritz of the San Diego, California, school district has suggestions for dealing with children who are unresponsive or inattentive or who do not follow directions.

- Catch the child's eye or touch him or her before you speak. This is especially helpful if the child is hyperactive.
- Give only one direction at a time; many children hear only the last of a series.
- Adjust the difficulty and length of assignments to allow for deficiencies in handwriting or other problems. Children can taste success if goals aren't set too high.
- Assign work by the contract system, i.e., by having children agree to accomplish a certain amount of work within a certain time. To fulfill your end of the bargain, give an award—even if it's only the privilege of cleaning the chalkboard.
- Above all—praise, praise, praise! Accentuate the positive and ignore the negative as much as possible.

Bruce L. Curry, who raises poultry as well as teaches fourth grade in Waterloo, Indiana, brings a clutch of live baby chicks to school each spring. In anticipation of their arrival, his students set out on a variety of tasks having to do with poultry. They design bulletin boards that describe the poultry industry. They learn the history of the Partridge Rock chicken, a variety of poultry developed in Indiana in about 1890. They find on their spelling lists names like *Blue Andalusian* and *Black Australorp,* and they learn how to spell them. They read brochures from hatcheries and learn what breeds are currently available and how much they cost. They write stories about "chicken happenings."

When the chicks have been established in the classroom, the students play host to other classes that come to visit the babies. They have also entertained the media, who know a full-feathered story when they see one.

Each year several children are inspired to go into poultry raising at home, with an eye to eventual competition at the county fair.

Scarcely anything is more taxing than keeping chickens alive (unless it's turkeys), but here are some other challenges—ones involving problem solving by groups of children—from Roy W. Lawrence, coordinator of an outdoor adventure and challenge program at Mansfield Middle School, Storrs, Connecticut.

The first requires a two-by-two-foot square marked off on the ground. The task is for 12 children to get themselves inside the square within a certain amount of time—say, two minutes—and stay there for six seconds. No feet or hands can stick out over the edge. Since the purpose of the exercise is to teach the value of group planning, have the group try it once without doing any. Before their second attempt, allow them one minute of planning time.

Another activity, the Stretcher, requires only a long hallway or length of field. The entire group must "stretch" from point A to distant point B while remaining connected to one another at all times. Again, allow no planning for the first effort and then one minute's worth for the second. Don't make helpful suggestions about using jackets, belts, shoestrings, etc.

Postexercise discussion should reveal the key points of problem solving: identifying the problem; recognizing resources, including teamwork; selecting a good plan; and sticking to it.

In 1978, as an exercise in both environmental improvement and international understanding, two Arizona museums sponsored a poetry contest and an art contest entitled "The Environment Through Children's Eyes" for children in the public schools in Sonora, Mexico. Sonora's director of environmental programs spread the word to children in the primary schools there, and eventually 57 winning poster ended up on the walls of one of the sponsors, the Tucson Museum of Art.

Another poster became the cover pic ture on the fall newsletter published b the other sponsor, the Arizona-Sonor Desert Museum. This poster, the wor of a sixth grader, depicts several way in which urban environments can b degraded—a vandal marks up the wa of a building, an overflowing trash ca attracts pests, a girl throws a bottle int the street. The winning poems on th environment were selected from the po etry writers who won contests in their schools in Sonora. Awards were pre sented to all the winners at a special reception in the Tucson Museum of Art. Contests like these can do much to help children become more conscious of the beleaguered environment.

Another strategy in the litter war could evolve from a math project in comparative shopping for soft drinks. Students from localities where all type of soft drink containers are available can investigate which are the better bargain—cans, nonreturnable bottles, or returnable bottles? Do returnable bottles cost less per liter than throw aways when the latter come in bigger sizes? What if the buyer habitually never returns them to get his or her refund? With respect to soft drink purchases, is good environmental practice always good economics?

I remember a town in northern Flori da (but not, unfortunately, its name) that has signs at its entrances proclaiming the entire city to be a bird sanctuary. Why shouldn't every village, town, and city be a wildlife sanctuary?

Arranging such a happy condition—or finding out why it can't be done—would be an interesting science project. Various activities could be brought into play: writing for advice from authorities and experts such as the National Audubon Society; interviewing local officials; designing posters to enlist support from townspeople; notifying the media; and, not least, of course, reading everything available about the wildlife species in the area—their habitats, foods, and other needs.

Fifth graders in Orcutt, California

enjoy taking part in an "Adopt a Senior Citizen" program.

Each September, principal Tony Brancato visits a local rest home to get names of residents who would like to receive mail from children. Then each fifth grader chooses a name and writes to that person weekly, often enclosing some art or craftwork. Many of the elderly recipients return the compliment, often writing about exciting experiences of their own youth.

Students sometimes visit their adoptees. Some children who first took part in this program in 1975 are still in touch with their special friends. "A bridge of love and understanding between the children and the aged has been established," according to Brancato.

Spontaneous Spelling Space is what Sharon Johnson of the Reese School, Warrensburg, Missouri, calls the program she uses to develop enthusiasm for words.

Having chosen a theme for the week, either Ms. Johnson or her second graders make a bulletin board display that is centered around the theme and that features relevant spelling words. Then the children create learning games that use the board. For example, one child becomes the teacher and asks members of a predesignated team to spell words orally, thereby earning points that accumulate toward winning a championship.

In a second game, children take turns making up sentences using as many of the words on the list as possible. In a third game, those inventive enough make up original riddles that include the words of the week for their classmates to solve. □

"I didn't learn a thing in school today. I hope you haven't paid your taxes."

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Letters

(continued)

sounds overwhelming.

Teachers in some districts have prep aration periods to mark papers and pre pare lessons. Might we now be give time for student study groups, paren conferences, and training in keepin accurate, helpful records?

—Harold R. Loe, *fifth grade teache Maple Elementary School, Springfiel Oregon.*

I concur with Margaret Yonemu ("How Children Teach Us," Februar March) that "child study sessions ca offer support and restore energies t responsive teaching," but such ses sions can be destructive without good leadership and direction.

The University of Maryland offer such guidance in its Institute for Chil Study. The program provides experi ences in objectively recording child be haviors, classifying and analyzing be haviors in terms of developmental pro cesses, and making inferences regardi ing multiple causes of behavior. These experiences provide a teacher with a systematic approach for making deci sions that will enhance a child's grow and development. The Institute's pre service and in-service programs, like those mentioned by Ms. Yonemura, have contributed to the growth of teachers and students not only in Mary land but all over the world.

—Vivian A. Sheridan, *classroom teacher, Seven Locks Elementary School, Montgomery County, Maryland; adjunct professor, Western Maryland College, Westminster.*

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Books

Organization Without Authority: Dilemmas of Social Control in Free Schools by **Ann Swidler.** Harvard. 199 pp. $12.50.

It is time to analyze the counterculture of the sixties. One of its salient features was hostility to all forms of authority. This hostility led to much experimentation with organizations in which the authority principle had been abandoned. The free schools are just one instance. In this book, sociologist Ann Swidler examines two free public secondary schools located in Berkeley, California—one of them predominantly Black; the other, mainly upper-middle-class White.

What made these schools radically experimental was the fact that teachers and students were status equals. Teachers scarcely taught; instead they participated with students in projects of the students' choosing. Nor did they exercise disciplinary power. Instead students came and went as they pleased, more or less made their own rules—collectively—and determined for themselves how much as well as what kind of work they would demand of themselves. The reader gets the impression that the level of disorder in the schools was frequently high but that it fell far short of chaos.

Willingly deprived of authority, teachers relied on other resources to influence students in what they thought were desirable directions. Some were charismatic. All made use of their private personalities—as teachers always do—but in these schools the ideology of "openness and honesty" seemed to require that teachers "trade" intimate revelations about themselves for some degree of student compliance with their requests. Appeals to collective solidarity and common purpose—the middle-class school saw itself as a revolutionary vanguard—also helped to mobilize organization-maintaining behavior on the part of students.

As have many other scholars, Swidler tells us that the main purpose of the hidden curriculum of both free schools and open education is learning to live effectively with the peer group. The other main goal of the curriculum—not at all hidden—is learning to do self-initiated, autonomous work.

As for the outcomes of such schools, the accumulated evidence is that their results in academic areas are the same as or, in some instances, inferior to the results of more traditional schools. There is limited evidence that they produce students with superior social skills, but none that I know of that they produce people with superior capacity to perform self-initiated, autonomous work.

Turning to the sources of the free-school movement, Swidler presents two main hypotheses. The first holds that free schools were instituted to co-opt the students of the sixties and contain the potentially disruptive effects of their rebelliousness. According to the second, these schools represented an adaptation of the work of the school to the work patterns typical of highly educated people in a late industrial society.

In the latter view, free schools are important because their organization points to the future organization of prestigious work in a society increasingly dependent on new knowledge. Perhaps the trouble with this explanation is that in such work organizations, authority is based exclusively on expertise. In free schools, however, teachers forego even this kind of authority, leaving the school with no reason for being.

A short review cannot do justice to the complexity and insightfulness of Swidler's analysis. For anyone who wants to understand the free-school movement rather than moralize about it, this is an immensely clarifying essay.

Reviewed by **Leila Sussmann,** *professor of sociology, Tufts University, Medford, Massachusetts; author of* Tales Out of School: Implementing Change in the Elementary Grades.

Summer Learning and the Effects of Schooling by **Barbara Heyns.** Academic Press. 326 pp. $21.

Barbara Heyns has written a lengthy report on a study she made of the effects of summer school on the "cognitive growth" of children in a sample of schools in one school system. The subject is worth pursuing. For one thing, the traditional summer vacation is increasingly looked on as an anachronism. If it were to become clear, therefore, that summer school made important contributions to student learning—particularly to the learning of those who appear to have difficulties—that would be all to the good.

But Heyns's findings do not respon
with much confidence to that issue or t
anything else germane to the objective
of American education. Studies of th
effects of summer school (or any othe
mechanism) on learning are not likely t
be very productive unless the investiga
tors make explicit their assumption
about the following issues:

- The objectives of American schoo
in promoting cognitive learning
- The best instructional strategies f
accomplishing these objectives
- The best ways of assessin
achievement of these objectives
- Acceptable levels of cognitive
achievement.

On this last question, Heyns would
likely respond that grade equivalency
which was her criterion, represents a
acceptable level of achievement. Bu
here the key question should be, How
useful is the index of grade equivalen
cy?

As with summer vacations, it is be
coming increasingly clear that the
graded school is an anachronism. Wh
packaging education in 10-month par-
cels is better than in 6- or 4- or 12-
month parcels has never been demon-
strated. Also, the idea that learning,
cognitive or any other kind, is linear and
can be "temporally" determined with
confidence is just not supportable. Even
worse, Heyns shreds the year's growth
in-a-year criterion into months, even
weeks. At one point she actually reports
a statistic of just two weeks' cognitive
growth!

Since the criterion for growth in he
study is the score on one of nine sub
tests of an achievement test, the re
ported "growth" is likely to be based on
schooling that lasted no more than a
couple of hours. When, in addition, one
takes into account that a change in the
answers to only two or three items on a
standardized test can move a student's
score 10 or more percentage points,
one gets the impression that Heyns's
manipulation of "metrics" is analogous
to researching the last half hour of the
Renaissance.

As if the misguided use of grade
equivalents weren't enough, the particu-
ular subtest that she chose makes the
whole effort at measuring cognitive
growth ludicrous. For reasons she tries
unsatisfactorily to justify, Heyns has
used as the criterion of learning the

vocabulary subtest of the Metropolitan Achievement Test. If ever there was a supreme example of a test that reduces children's cognitive growth to a simplistic monolith, this must be it. It would be bad enough to use an entire standardized test for that purpose. To make a bad process worse, however, she has compared loss of vocabulary (based on the subtest items) over the summer vacation for White and Black students and concluded that Black students have greater learning losses than Whites. What an opportunity for truth-in-testing, were it available, to expose the content of tests that lead to this sorry state of affairs. Both the teaching profession and the public should find it highly instructive to examine the vocabulary items used as an analog in this flimsy comparison of what is called cognitive growth.

Heyns would have done well to be guided by her own caveat: "In order to infer patterns of learning from standardized achievement tests, many of the commonsense notions about what constitutes learning must be held in abeyance."

A number of significant and essential "commonsense notions," had they *not* been held in abeyance, would have advised her not to proceed—at least not with the research model employed. It's a shame, too, that she went ahead, because Heyns concludes that schools do make a difference in student achievement even when socioeconomic status is controlled. Another voice in support is always helpful on this point, although many of us have all along known it to be true. We have been aware of both the poor instrumentation and the poor methodolgy of, for example, the Coleman studies that concluded the contrary. What we don't need is equally poor instrumentation and methodology to refute Coleman. And that is what the Heyns study seems to have succeeded in bringing together.

The dust jacket says *Summer Learning* is likely to become a classic in the field. I think not, and I hope not. If this were a classic, it would indicate that the status of research on learning and the effects of schooling is infinitely more primitive than I am willing to accept.

Reviewed by **Bernard McKenna,** *senior professional associate, NEA Instruction and Professional Development.*

Empty Pages: A Search for Writing Competency in School and Society by **Clifton Fadiman** and **James Howard.**

(continued on page 82)

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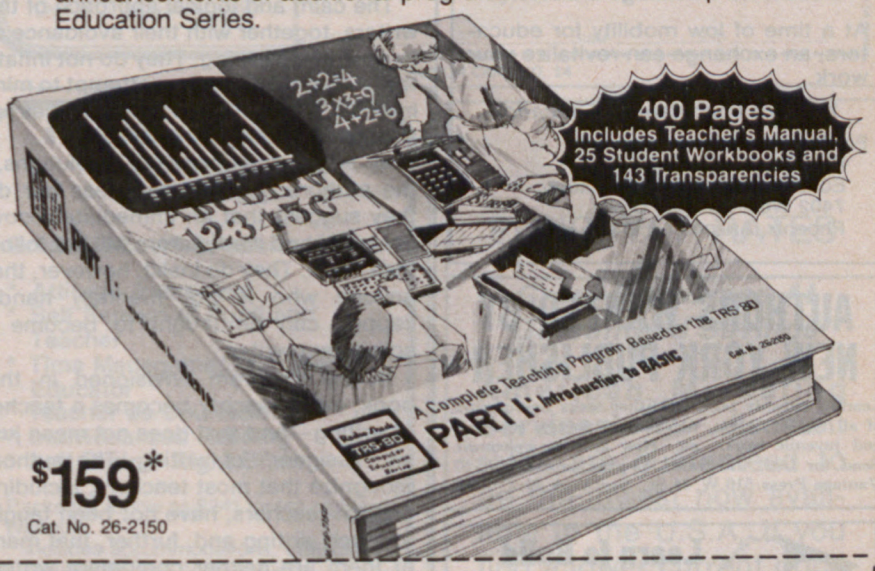

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Books
(continued)

Fearon-Pitman. 176 pp. $7.95; paper, $5.95.

This book deserves to be read *widely*. I emphasize widely, for the title of the book and the general assumption that writing is the province of English teachers are likely to result in a somewhat limited audience for this work. That would be unfortunate. While the authors do indeed have an important message for teachers of English, they address much of this book to educators of all disciplines.

In seven chapters, the authors take a calm and reasoned look at the decline in writing competency and the causes for that decline. They consider the cases for and against attacking the problem and suggest ways in which the trend can be reversed. Finally, they cite some exemplary programs now in operation.

The calm and logical approach of the writers, together with their avoidance of jargon, is refreshing. They do not inflate the problem nor do they attempt to minimize it. They face the difficulties of improving writing honestly.

In suggesting possible "solutions," the authors offer no panaceas nor do they suggest that an immediate recovery is at hand if educators will but follow their dicta. They do insist, however, that anyone who is not mentally handicapped can be taught to become a competent writer.

In the program envisioned in this book, every teacher becomes a teacher of writing—and that does not mean just an "assigner" of writing. The authors recognize that most teachers, including English teachers, have not been taught to teach writing and, further, that many of them are neither competent writers themselves nor prepared to teach their students to become competent writers.

If a teaching staff is to commit itself to the goals the authors present, administrators must strongly support efforts to reach those goals and teachers must have meaningful, continuing in-service programs. One of the basic assumptions of the authors is that "all teachers (and even administrators) are or should be, even if not primarily, teachers of English and therefore, to some degree, of writing."

The authors give brief but significant consideration to two aspects of writing that are often overlooked. First, they recognize that learning to write will inevitably involve writing to learn. Second, they assume that "clear and effective writing is not simply a skill or a socio-economic advantage. Because it expresses the integrity (or dishonesty) of an intellectual process, it is a moral activity."

No doubt each reader will find statements with which to take strong exception or areas that the authors seem to gloss over or treat superficially. In spite of this, or perhaps because of this, the book is well worth reading. Too many books require nothing more than passive reading; this one invites reaction and action.

Reviewed by **Ruth D. Hallman,** *chairman, English Department, Walter E. Stebbins High School, Mad River Township, Ohio.*

Rites of Fall: High School Football in Texas. Photographs by **Geoff Winningham.** Text by **Al Reinert.** Commentary by **Don Meredith.** 176 pp. University of Texas Press. $24.95; paperback, $14.95.

High School: U.S.A. by **Jim Richardson.** St. Martin's Press. 187 pp. $19.95; paperback, $8.95.

Rites of Fall and *High School: U.S.A.* are both picture books, with lots of full-page black-and-white photographs that depict (mostly) small town life in Texas and Kansas respectively. Winningham's Texas photographs, almost entirely of activity on or near the football field, are of very high quality; his sense of timing is superb. *High School: U.S.A.*, though it has plenty of football scenes, is organized like a high school yearbook and follows the class of 1979 through their senior year. Comments made by members of the class provide the picture captions; they give a youthful and emotional aura to the collection of photographs.

Obviously, neither volume is aimed at the school market. Both books are likely, however, to have special appeal to high school faculty and students. *High School: U.S.A.* will, for one thing, make its adult readers nostalgic for their own high school days. *Rites of Fall*, in addition to documenting the importance of football to the high school community, also demonstrates to budding photographers the value of anticipating—and waiting for—the right moment to make a shot.

Reviewed by **Lee Moyne Mark,** *photography teacher, Pasadena (California) High School. Mark is a recent winner of the National Photography Instructors' Association's award for outstanding teaching of photography.*

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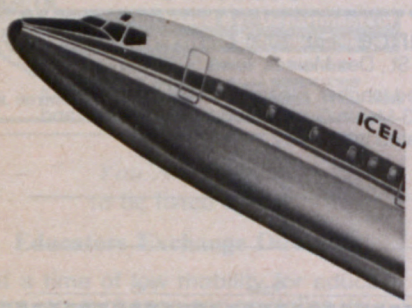

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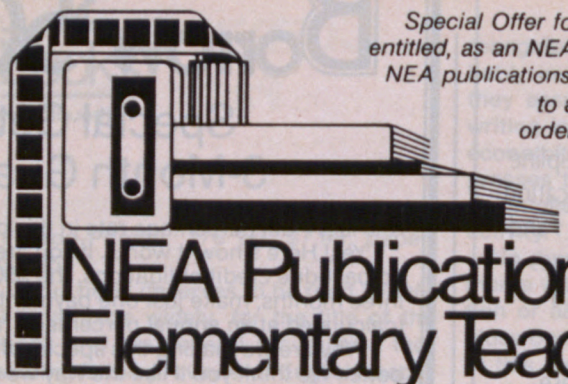

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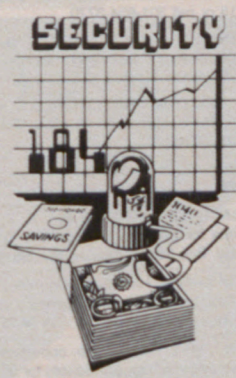

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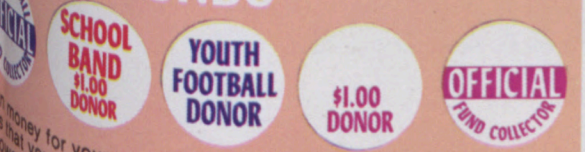

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